

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ
ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

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Аннотация: Курс посвящен изучению исторических событий на территории современной Великобритании. Представлен анализ политических, экономических и международных событий, рассматриваются их предпосылки и последствия, дается характеристика основных исторических персонажей. Курс читается на английском языке.

Темы: 1. Первые завоеватели Британских островов (кельты, римляне, саксонцы, викинги). 2. Раннее средневековье (Норманны, феодализм). 3. Позднее средневековье. 4. Тюдоры. 5. Стюарты. 6. XVIII век. 7. XIX век. 8. XX век.

Ключевые слова: история, Норманны, Тюдоры, Стюарты, Парламент, гражданская война.

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Тема 1. The first conquerors of the British Isles (the Celts, the Romans, the Saxons, the Vikings)

Лекция 1

Аннотация. В данной теме описывается образ жизни и деятельность первых завоевателей Британских островов: кельтов, римлян, саксонцев, викингов.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) Britain's prehistory
- 2) The Celts
- 3) The Romans
- 4) The Saxons
- 5) The Vikings

Ключевые слова: the earliest times, the Celts, the Romans, the Saxons, the Vikings.

Глоссарий

Beaker people – a group of people who arrived after 2400 in southeast Britain from Europe. Their arrival is marked by the first individual graves, furnished with pottery beakers.

Celts - a group of people, who arrived around 700 BC, probably came from central Europe or southern Russia They were tall, had blue eyes, fair or red hair.

Civitas - the old Celtic tribal capitals.

Coloniae - towns peopled by Roman settlers.

Druids – warriors and priests, who ruled the Celtic tribes.

Municipia - large cities, in which all people were given Roman citizenship.

Saxons - the invaders who came from three powerful Germanic tribes: the Saxons, Angles, Jutes.

Vikings - the invaders who raided Britain in 8th century from Norway and Denmark.

Witan - the King's Council, which grew out of an informal group of warrior and churchmen (advisers of the king).

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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Britain's prehistory

Britain became an island after the end of the last ice age. The ice melted and flooded the lowlands where we have the English Channel now. The Ice age was not one equally cold period (in its colder periods the Thames was under ice caps). Our first evidence of human life – a stone tool 250000 BC. These objects can show that there were two kinds of people: the earlier who made the tools from the flakes of the flint which was common in North European plates or Russia; the later who make the tools from the core of the flint, the most typical way of producing tools (came from Africa to Europe). The tools are found in the north of Yorkshire and the west of Wales.

Then the ice advanced again and Britain became hardly habitable until another milder period 50000 BC. That time the ancestors of modern British arrived, they were smaller than modern ones and lived for 30 years.

About 3000 BC Neolithic (New Stone Age) people crossed the narrow sea from Europe (small round boats covered with animal skins, the boats could carry 1-2 persons). These people kept animals and grew crops, made pottery. They came from Iberian (Spanish) peninsula or even the North African coast. They were small and dark – they must be the forefathers of dark-haired people of Wales and Cornwall. They settled in the western part of Britain and Ireland. The great “public works” tell us a little about the way the people lived. The earliest are “the barrow” or burial mounds made of earth or stone. They are found on the chalk uplands in the south of Britain. Now we have here thinly inhabited area with poor soil and few trees, but that time there were airy woodlands easily cleaned for farming. By 1400 BC these lands became over farmed and the climate became drier so the land couldn’t support the people.

But the monuments remain. After 3000 BC the chalkland people started building great circles of earth banks and ditches. Inside they built wooden buildings and stone circles. These “henges” were centers of religious, political and economical power.

After 2400 BC new groups of people arrived in southeast Britain from Europe. They were round-headed and strongly built, rather than Neolithic Britons. Soon these guys with military and meta-working skills became the leaders of British society. We call them “Beaker” people, because their arrival is marked by the first individual graves, furnished with pottery beakers. Scientists think that graves had been common before, because the old barrows were created to please gods in hope that they will prevent the chalkland from getting poor.

The Beaker people probably spoke an Indo-European language. They seem to have brought how to make bronze tools. Stonehenge remained the center until 1300 BC. The Beakers richest graves were there and they added a circle of 30 stones connected by stone-pieces. From that time a new form of society in southern England - settled farming class.

The Celts

Around 700 BC another group of people arrived. They were tall, had blue eyes, fair or red hair. These Celts probably came from central Europe or southern Russia. They were technically advanced – they could use iron. It is possible that they drove other people to Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Celts began to control all the lowland areas of Britain. The Celts are important in British history because they are ancestors of many people who live nowadays in Highland Scotland. The Iberian people of Wales and Cornwall took on the new Celtic culture. The Celts were organized in different tribes, and tribal chiefs were chosen from each family or tribe, sometimes chosen by election.

The last Celtic arrivals from Europe were the Belgic tribes. It was natural for them to settle at the southwest of Britain pushing other Celtic tribes northwards as they did it. The Celtic tribes continued the same kind of agriculture as the Bronze Age people before them. However, their use of iron technology and their introduction of more advance ploughing methods made it possible for them to farm heavier soils. They continued to build hill-forts that means that the Celts were highly successful farmers.

The hill-forts remained the center for local groups. The insides of these hill-forts were filled with houses; they became the simple economic capitals and smaller “towns” of the different tribal areas into which Britain was now divided. Certain annual fairs associated with hill forts.

The Celtic tribes were ruled by a warrior class, of which the priests, or Druids, seem to have been particularly important members. These Druids could not read or write, but they memorized all the religious teaching, the tribal laws, medicine and so on. The druids from different tribes met once a year. They had no temples but they met in sacred grooves of trees, on certain Hills, by rivers or river sources. The worships included human sacrifices.

The Romans

The name “Britain” comes from the word “Pretani”, the Greco-Roman word for inhabitants of Britain. The island introduced the word “Britannia. The Romans invaded because the Celts of Britain worked with the Celts of Gaul against them. The

British Celts were giving them food, were allowing them to hide in Britain. Besides, under the Celts Britain had become important food producer because of its mild climate. It exported corn, animals, hunting dogs and slaves, the Romans could make use of it.

The Romans brought the skills of writing and reading. The sons of chiefs were trained, so Latin started to be used, the Roman cloak became popular. The Celtic peasantry remained illiterate and only Celtic-speaking, a number of town-dwellers spoke Latin and Greek. But Latin completely disappeared when the Anglo-Saxons invaded in the fifth century AD.

Julius Ceasar first came to Britain in 55 BC, but a Roman army actually entered the island in 43 AD. The Romans established a Romano-British culture across the southern part of Britain from the River Humber to the river Severn. This part was inside the empire. Beyond there were uplands controlled by Romans. These areas were watched from the towns of York, Chester and Caerleon in the western peninsula of Britain that later became known as Wales.

The Romans could not conquer Scotland, they spent a century to do it. At last they built a wall along the northern border (120 km long and 4 m high), named after Emperor Hadrian. It also marked the border between two countries, England and Scotland. Eventually, the border was established a few miles north. Roman control came to an end as the empire began to collapse. In AD 409 Rome pulled its last soldiers out of Britain and the Romano-British, the Romanised Celts, were left to fight alone against the Scots, the Irish and Saxon raiders from Germany.

The most obvious characteristic of Roman Britain was its towns, which grew out of Celtic settlements. They were three different kinds of towns: 1) *coloniae* – towns peopled by Roman settlers, 2) *municipia* – large cities, in which all people were given Roman citizenship, 3) *civitas* – included the old Celtic tribal capitals. At first the cities had earthworks, but by AD 300 all towns had thick stone walls. The Romans left 20 large towns and 100 smaller ones. The Latin word *casta* (chester, caster, cester) - army camp - remained part of many town names: Gloucester, Doncaster, Chester, Lancaster. They were built with stones or wood and had planed streets,

shops and markets, roads. Some of the houses had central heating. 20000 people lived in London.

Outside the town the biggest change was the growth of large farms (villas), situated close to the cities to sell crops. Common people lived in the same kinds of round huts and villages. The life for them was very hard (people die between 20 and 40 years old).

The Saxon invasion

An English monk Bede tells us that the invaders came from three powerful Germanic tribes: the Saxons, Angles, Jutes. The Jutes settled in Kent and the south coast and were considered no different from the Angles and Saxons. The Angles settled in the east, and also in the north Midlands, the Saxons settled between them in a band of land from the Thames Estuary westwards. England – the land of Angles.

The British Celts fought the raiders, during the next hundred years they were pushed westwards until by 570 they were forced west of Gloucester. Finally most were driven into the mountains in the far west, which the Saxons called “Weallas” (Wales). Some Celts were driven into Cornwall, where they accepted Saxon laws. In the north the Celts were driven to lowlands called later Scotland. Hardly anything is left from Celtic culture, but for the names of the rivers: Thames, Mersey, Severn and Avon, also London and Leeds.

The strength of Anglo – Saxon culture: the days are named after Germanic gods. The earliest Saxon villages – family villages. (-ing mens family: Hastings – family of Hast; ham – farm: Birmingham). The Anglo-Saxons created kingdoms: Essex (east Saxons), Sussex (south Saxons) and so on. In the 7th century the most powerful were Northumbria, Mercia and Wessex. In the 8th century one of the kings Offa of Mercia claimed “kingship of the English”. He was the most powerful and built the earth wall, the length of the Welsh border, to keep from the Celts. But after the death of the king the process stopped, as for a king’s power depended on the personal loyalty of the followers.

The Saxons created several institutions. For example, Witan – the King’s Council, which grew out of an informal group of warrior and churchmen (advisers of the king). By the 10th century the Witan was a formal body, issuing laws. The king

could ignore their laws, but the Witan had the right to choose the king. The Saxons divided the land into new administrative areas – shires (counties). Over each shire was appointed a shire reeve, the king's local administrator. It was shortened then to “sheriff”.

Anglo-Saxons technology changed the type of agriculture. Instead of square fields (small), cultivated with a light plough, a long stripes for each family were introduced, cultivated by heavier plough. One field was used for planting spring crops, the next for autumn crops, the third one is left for rest.

The Vikings

The Viking (“pirates”) raided Britain in 8th century from Norway and Denmark. First of all they burnt everything along the east, north and west coasts of Britain. London was raided in 842. In 865 the Vikings invaded Britain because the Anglo-Saxon people quarreled between each other. The Vikings accepted Christianity and made a treaty with Alfred, who won some battles, including London. The Vikings was recognized in the east and north of England (Danelaw – Law of the Danes). In the rest Alfred was recognized a king, he built settlements to keep the Vikings out (burghs – borough)

In 950 Danish Vikings started raiding westwards The Saxon king, Ethelred, decided to pay them to sat away – the new tax appeared (“Danegold”). When he died Churt, the leader of the Danish Vikings, controlled much of England. In 1040 after his son's death Witan elected Edward, Ethelred's son to be a king. Edward the Confessor was more interested in Church than in kingdom. He stated a typical English village – a manor's house, a church and the village. Edward died without obvious heir. The Witan chose a person from a local family without royal blood, but courageous and rich, to be the king. Harold's rights were challenged by the Duke William of Normandry, because King Edward and a lot of other people had promised it to him. Normans actually were grandchildren of the Vikings who came to France. So as a result Harold had two problems – Danes in the north and William in the

south. He won the Danes but was defeated then by Normans in the South. William marched to London and was crowned a king in 1066.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) Who were the first people of the British Isles?
- 2) Where did the Celts come from?
- 3) Who were the Druids?
- 4) Which institutions did the Saxons create?
- 5) What types of cities the Romans established?
- 6) What is “the Danegold”?

Тема 2. The Early Middle Ages (the Normans, Feudalism)

Лекция 2

Аннотация. В данной теме описывается деятельность норманнских завоевателей, рассматриваются основы функционирования феодального общества, образование английского парламента, образ жизни горожан и жителей деревни.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) The Norman Conquest
- 2) Parliament
- 3) Law and justice
- 4) Towns and Villages

Ключевые слова: the Norman conquest, feudalism, Parliament, the ordeal, the guild.

Глоссарий

“Domesday” book – the book written in 1086, where it was who owned the land and how much it was worth.

Feudal system – the system of holding of land: all land was owned by the king but it was held by others, called “vassals” in return for services and goods.

Guild – brotherhoods of merchants or skilled worker in towns.

The House of Commons - a “representative institution”, which contains a mixture of knights and merchant

Jury - 12 neighbors who could help the suspect to prove his innocence, then who could decide whether the accused is guilty or not.

Magna Carta” (the Great Charter) – an agreement, written in 1215, according to which the king promised all “freemen” protection and the right to a fair trial.

Ordeal – the procedure of defining the guilt of the suspect when the iron is put on the tongue.

Parliament – the supreme legislative body of England

Serf - a person who worked on the land of the nobles and was not able to leave the estate.

Vassal – a person who held the land in return for services and goods

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. После ознакомления с лекционным материалом предусматривается выполнение практических заданий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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The Norman Conquest. Feudalism

The Normans were fighting in the country for twenty years, as they were not accepted by the locals: every year it was an Anglo-Saxon rebellion. The north was particularly hard to control, so the Norman army had no mercy. Few Saxon lords kept their land as they accepted William as the king, others lost everything, their land was given to the Normans.

William was careful and gave the land in the following way – small parts of the land in different parts of the country to one person, so no noble had a united part of land, where he could quickly organize people to rebel. Larger estates were given on the boarder with Wales and Scotland. Besides, he kept enough land for himself. Actually every time he conquered smth he gave a half to the Norman nobles, a quarter to the Church, and kept a quarter to himself. He introduced feudal system. The basis of feudal system was the holding of land: all land was owned by the king but it was held by others, called “vassals” in return for services and goods (the main to serve in the war for up to 40 days and gave the part of the products). The noble kept “serf” to work on his own land, they were not able to leave the estate and were a little better than slaves.

As a result every man had a lord and every lord had a land. At each level a man had to promise loyalty to his lord. This promise was usually made with the lord sitting on his chair and his vassal kneeling before him, his hands placed between those of his lord. This was called “homage”, has remained part of coronation ceremony still now. Each lord had responsibilities to his vassals: he had to give him land and protection.

When a noble dies, his son took his estate after paying the tax to the king and asking for his permission. If he was a child, the king ruled his land until him being an adult: he used the land’s wealth. Besides, if all members of the noble’s family died the king took the land and gave it to another noble, having used it for several years before.

By 1086, he wanted to know exactly who owned the land and how much it was worth. He sent a team of people to produce questioning. The “Domesday” book was

written after this procedure (Doom – Day of Judgment). This procedure was unpopular.

William governed England and Normandy by traveling from one place to another. The king's "household" actually was the government, which was always on move. There was no capital, the kings were crowned in Westminster, their treasury was in Winchester (Wessex capital). The movements of the king led to running out of food and high prices (the king's advisers ate a lot). This form of governing worked well only for small kingdoms, but William's country was too big. He started sending sheriffs to rule the counties. Of course the ruling needed a great number of people – taxation, justice and so on. Only William's grandson established real Administration in Westminster in 1210.

William controlled two large areas – England won in the war, Normandy – his original possession where he was a vassal to the French king. When William died in 1087 he left the Duchy of Normandy to his elder son, Robert, and he gave England to his second son, William known as "Rufus" (red hair and face). When Robert went to fight the Muslims in the Holy Land, he left William in charge of Normandy. William died in 1100 in hunting accident. He had no son to take the crown. Robert, the Duke of Normandy, was in Holy land. Henry, their third brother decided to take the English crown. He took the king's treasure and was crowned quickly. Robert decided to invade, but spent a year organizing the army. The Norman nobles in England chose Henry, in spite of the fact that they also had lands in Normandy, that's why Robert's invasion was a failure. But Henry, the king of England, wanted more. His nobles were willing to win back their Norman lands, so in 1106 Henry invaded Normandy and captured Robert. Henry's main aim was to pass both lands to his son, but the son died, so he claimed his daughter, Matilda, a successor. He made her marry the Duke of Anjou (Geoffrey Plantagenet), whose land was southwest of Normandy. But right before Henry's death he quarreled publicly with the daughter. So there were 2 candidates for the crown: Matilda and Stephen of Blois (Henry's nephew). Both of them were in France in their estates. But Stephen was quicker. He came to England and was crowned. He was good in fighting but nothing else.

Matilda invaded England four years later. It led to a great civil war (great disorder), which none could win, so as a result they came to conclusion that after Henry's death both lands would go to Matilda's son, Henry. As a result Henry II was the first unquestioned ruler of the country. He destroyed castles built without his permission and made the nobles live in the manor. He added the lands of Anjou to his lands, then he married Eleanor de Aquitaine he ruled the lands south of Anjou. But then he quarreled with his wife and his sons Richard and John took her side. Henry died in 1189.

Henry was followed by his rebellious son Richard "Lionheart". He was very popular, although he didn't spend time in England, fighting in the Holy land. Actually he was French in culture. On his way back he was captured by the duke of Austria, with whom he had quarreled in Jerusalem. The duke demanded a lot of money and got the sum in two years. In 1199 Richard died in France and the French king took part of his land.

Richard was followed by his brother John, who quickly quarreled with three powerful groups of people: the nobles, the merchants, the church. He was very greedy. The nobles had run their cases in their courts and took payments – John took nearly all cases to his court and took the money. Then he increased payments for the marriage of noble's daughters and the money a son had to pay to get the estate after his father's death. As for the church he kept bishoprics to himself instead of giving to another bishop. Besides he taxed towns a lot. In 1204 French king invaded Normandy and English lords lost their lands – so John didn't protect them.

In 1209 John quarreled with the pope who should be Archbishop of Canterbury. As a result the pope closed churches in England, the nation was in panic. So in 1214 John gave in. In 1215 John hoped to recapture Normandy, but the nobles had no desire to follow him. On the contrary they went to London, joined angry merchants and made the king sign a new agreement "Magna Carta" (the Great Charter). The king promised all "freemen" protection and the right to a fair trial. As only a quarter were freemen (the most part of people were serfs), so the agreement helped only the rich. This was one of the steps in ruining of feudal system. Lords made a committee of 24 people to look after the king. A vassal had to fight for his lord for 40 days, after

this the lord had to pay, because the vassals didn't want to fight. In other cases the lords also preferred to take money instead of service. The vassals turned into the tenants.

Parliament

But John had no intention to keep the word and the civil war started, but died in 1216, leaving the country to his 9-year-old son. During next 16 years he was ruled by the nobles. But at the age of 25 he decided to get rid of the influence of the nobles, so he got foreign friends and started expensive wars supporting the pope in Sicily and France. Henry's advisers and spending upset the nobles and under the leadership of Simon de Montfort, earl of Leicester, they created a council of nobles (parliament), which took control of the treasury and forced Henry to fire his foreign advisers. They were supported by the town which didn't like heavy taxes. But some of the nobles supported the king and killed de Montfort. Henry had the whole authority. In 1272 Henry's son Edward I brought together the first real parliament. Before his reign the parliament had been able to make written laws and political decisions, but they couldn't provide the king with the money he needed – only the nobles were in the council and they could rule only the money from the land, but it wasn't enough for the king (only 40%). The rest should be got by taxation, which the rules of feudalism didn't include. The king created a "representative institution" – the House of Commons, which contain a mixture of knights and merchants. From each shire 2 representatives were sent to the Parliament. They tried to avoid giving money the Edward but in reality they didn't dared to risk his anger. During the next 150 years the agreement of the Commons became necessary for the making of all statutes, and all special taxation.

The king Edward I kept all his records in Westminster (Domesday book), the king's administration kept an eye on noble families, whether they pay what they must pay to the king, besides they were responsible for taxation. From 1066 to 1300 king's money got by taxation rose from 1/7 to 1/2 of his all money. It is not surprising that the administration began to grow, paper work increased, a number of seals as well.

Law and justice

The king was responsible for law in the country, but he usually gives it in the hands of those who live closer. In Saxon times every district had its laws and customs, justice was a family matter. After the Norman Conquest the nobles administered justice as they wanted mixing up Saxons and Norman laws. Henry I introduced an idea that the law should be the same everywhere. He appointed judges who traveled from place to place. They dealt with crimes and property cases as well. At first the judges had no special education, they were trusted to use common sense. Many of them were nobles and bishops appointed directly by the king. By the end of the 12th century the judges were men with experience. The law administered by these judges was named “common law”. Using common law was unlike other countries. In other parts of Europe legal practice was based on the Civil Law of the Roman Empire and the Cannon Law of the Church. Although English lawyers referred to them, but they created a completely new type of laws based on comparison, customs, previous cases and decisions. This way is still the basis of common English law – the mixture of experience and custom.

From Anglo-Saxon times there were two ways of deciding whether a man was guilty or not. The accused man could be tested in battle against a skilled fighter or tested by “ordeal” (to put a hot iron on the tongue and if the burn mark was still there three days later – he was guilty). Only in 1215 the second variant was forbidden. It was replaced with trial by jury (Danish tradition). It was not the way we have it now. A suspect could choose 12 neighbors who could help him to prove his innocence. Slowly during the later Middle Ages the system changed into the system we have now. Juries had no training in law, so it became obvious that they needed guidance. As a result law schools appeared in the 13th century, producing lawyers who could advise juries.

Towns and villages

In 1066 there were over 2 million people in England. Nine-tenth of them lived in the countryside. Life in the countryside was hard. Most of the population still lived in villages in southern and eastern parts of England. In the north and west there were fewer people, they often lived apart, on separate houses. Most people lived in the simplest houses. The walls were made of wooden beams and sticks, filled with mud.

They ate cereals and vegetables with pork meat for special occasions. They worked a lot and married only when they had the land of their own, however they slept together before marriage. The landlord expected the villagers to work a fixed number of days on his land (the home land), the rest of the time they worked on "common land" (their own village land). Three quarters of the country were serfs, their life was limited, but to be a serf under the lord's protection was better than the life of an unprotected wanderer.

Most landlords got their income from the home farm and from letting out some of their lands in return for rent in crops or money. In the 12th century the most part of the lands were let out. In fact from that time the word "farm" comes from: each arrangement the landlord made to a villager was called "firma".

By 1300 the population was over 4 million, the increase influenced the life in the country a lot, because it was hard to get food. The situation became worse on account of Norman's love for hunting – they forced the peasants out of the forests, punished them for killing animals. The peasants tried to cultivate more land so they came to poor lands and overused them quickly, as a result bad harvests became common and people starved often. A good land became very expensive. Unfortunately, agricultural skills improved a little. In addition the lords insisted on the cattle wandering on their land to enrich the land. Hunger made farmers study other activities: blacksmiths, carpenters and so on. Shortage of land led to a sharp rise in prices, so the smaller landed knights found it very difficult to pay for their military service, they became indebted.

Because of everything above-mentioned more people had no opportunity to pay for their land so many of them became landless. They came to town on hope for better future. But even in towns they farmed small land-holdings on the edge of the town. In general England was self-sufficient: there was a good trade inside the country (wool-producing areas imported wood from food-producing areas and visa versa). However, throughout the Middle Ages England needed things from abroad (salt and spices). During the Anglo-Saxon period most European trade was with Frisians (Low Countries) in the mouth of the River Rhine. Following the Vikings invasion most trade from the 8th century was with Scandinavia (England exported

grain and imported fish and timber). After the Norman conquest the trade of England moved towards the south (France, the Low countries). The Royal family had strong links with Gascony in France, that led to trade exchange of wine for cloth and cereal. However, the most important trade was with the Low Countries and the basis was wool.

During Anglo-Saxon times wool was exported a lot. William the Conqueror encouraged Flemish skilled workers from Normandy to settle in England and produce woollen cloth instead of exporting raw wool. They established several towns and started lively trade as they had good connections with France. However, raw wool stayed the most important point of export. As the European demand for wool stayed high, English traders could establish their own prices. The king taxed the trade a lot, wool trade stayed the most profitable business (When Richard “Lion Heart” was freed half of the price was paid in wool). Much of the industry was built up by the monasteries which kept large flocks of sheep. As a symbol of English wealth a wool sack is still in the House of Commons. “Chapmen” (traveling traders) bought wool at village markets. Then they took it to towns, where it was graded and bundled up for export or local spinning. Large fairs were the places where all dealers met – peasants, towners and even foreign dealers. So towns became necessary to everyone and by 1250 most of modern English towns were established. In most cases towns stood on lords’ lands, but the king discouraged lords from taking wealth from towns – he gave “Charters of freedom” to towns. The main reason was that the king considered towns the centers of royal support against rich nobles. But the charters should be paid for and were worth the money paid. Towns could raise their own taxes on goods coming in, have their own courts, develop social and economic organizations. It was the beginning of a middle class.

Within the towns everything was controlled by ‘guilds’. These were brotherhoods of merchants or skilled workers. At least 100 guilds existed in the 13th century. The right to form a guild was included into the charters, and the leaders of the towns were chosen among them. Later it became difficult to enter the guild because they tried to control a particular trade. In some cases, only the sons of guild-members could enter it, or a high price had to be paid. In the 14th century the guilds

developed. They could produce, buy and sell their products without special taxes; they did their best to protect their interests. However, members had to make sure that the goods were of a certain quality and should agree on prices not to undercut their colleagues. In London, the guilds developed quicker than anywhere.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) Who was the founder of the feudal system in England?
- 2) What is the basis of the feudal system?
- 3) What is Parliament?
- 4) How was the justice operated in the Middle Ages?
- 5) How did common people live in the Middle Ages?

Тема 3. The Late Middle Ages (the Normans, Feudalism)

Лекция 3

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматриваются причины и ход военных действий между Англией и Францией, гражданская война, экономическая ситуация и особенности жизнедеятельности разных классов английского общества.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) War with Scotland and France
- 2) War of Roses
- 3) Government and society

Ключевые слова: Hundred Year War, chivalry, war of roses, Parliament, class system.

Глоссарий

Black Death – a terrible plague in 1348

Code of chivalry - the way in which a perfect knight should behave

Hundred Year War – the war between England and France (1337-1453), after which England lost all its possessions in France

Lollardy – the heresy based on the writings, which allowed people to pray and think independently of Church control

Order of the Garter - 24 knights to gather once a year (the number of Arthur's knights)

Trade union – the union organized by the poor to protect their rights

War of Roses – a civil war in England

Yeomen – farmers who rented the land that belonged to a local feudal.

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. После ознакомления с лекционным материалом предусматривается выполнение практических заданий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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War with Scotland and France

England's attempts to control Scotland weren't successful – they were beaten in 1314, as a result England gave up his idea to lordship Scotland. However, soon two countries were at war again but this time England was at war with France. The repeated attempts of English kings to control Scotland had led the Scots to look for allies. The Scots turned to the king of France for whom there were advantages in an

alliance with Scotland. The agreement was that if England attacked one of them the second will make problems behind England's back.

England's troubles with France resulted from the French king's growing authority in France and his determination to control his nobles (part of French lands belonged to the English king where he was a vassal to the French king). The most troublesome vassals of the French king were the English king and the Duke of Burgundy. The king of France interfered the English trade. England traded with Gascony and Burgundy most of all. King of France seized Gascony first of all. Through Burgundy English traded crop and wool, so French intention to control the county was a threat to English economy. Threatening to stop trade through Burgundy, which would lead to definite economical collapse of the county, the English made the Duke of Burgundy support the English crown. Merchants gave money for the war against France because the French threatened their profits. Besides, the knights looked forward to winning lands.

Edward III declared war on France in 1337. He had an excuse – he claimed his rights to the French crown. The war was called a Hundred Years War and ended only in 1453 when England lost all its possessions in France.

At first the English were more successful than the French. The English army was experienced through its wars with the Scots, very light and quick, armed with longbows. In 1356 at Poitiers the English took a lot of treasure and even captured the French king. The French king had to give a great sum of money. In 1360 Edward III made a treaty with the French – he had re-established control over his French areas (Aquitaine, Gascony, Normandy and Brittany). But later a French king continued the war again and the lands but for some coastal ports were taken back. That time following the agreement with France the Scots attacked England, but they were defeated. For a while there was peace but then the war started again.

Edward III and his son (the Black Prince) were greatly admired for their courage on the battlefield. They became symbols of the “code of chivalry”, the way in which a perfect knight should behave. A great interest grew in the legendary king Arthur (a mixture of Celtic kings and also the knightly values of the court of Edward III).

A perfect knight fought for his good name if insulted, served God and the king, defended any lady in need. Edward introduced the idea of chivalry into his court. For example, when a lady lost her garter and everyone started laughing Edward picked it up and said “let him be ashamed who sees wrong in it”. He founded the Order of the Garter – 24 knights to gather once a year (the number of Arthur’s knights). Chivalry was a useful way to persuade people that the war is a noble thing, but in reality it was cruel and disastrous. The Black Prince was feared in France for his cruelty.

During the 14th century there was a continuous struggle between the king and his nobles. The first crisis came in 1327 when Edward II was killed (his wife Isabel and her lover), when Edward III grew older he took revenge. His grandson Richard II (The Black Prince had died before his father) became a king when he was 11 and other people ruled him. He was young and proud, so he quarreled with the nobles. He imprisoned his uncle (the third son of Edward III) John of Gaunt who was very powerful, he died in prison. His son Henry de Lancaster didn’t forgive, rebelled and deposed Richard II. Richard had no children, so Henry IV became the king. There was one more possible heir – earl of March (the grandson of the third son of Edward III). Henry IV was strong and spent his life establishing his authority, but he had sown the seeds of civil war – War of Roses: the followers of Lancastrians and Yorkists (earl of March).

By the end of the 14th century the Hundred Year War had been going on for 50 years. Henry IV died and passed the country (which was peaceful and rich) to his son Henry V. A new king was brave, clever and very popular. As there were no problems at home he decided to continue the war in France. He had success because the French king was mad and French nobles quarrelsome. Burgundy supported the English again and the French were beaten. Between 1417 and 1420 Henry V captured Normandy and nearby area. By treaty Henry V was recognized the heir of French king and married Katherine of Valois (the king’s daughter), but died before the French king and left nine-year-old son Henry VI to inherit both thrones.

But that time the French got their national feeling and started to fight back. They were inspired by Joan de Arc (she was then captured by Burgundians and given to the English who claimed her a witch and with the support of the church she was burnt in

1431). In 1435 after the betrayal of Burgundians who went to the French, the English lost all their lands in France and in 1453 the Hundred Year War was over.

War of Roses

Henry VI was a peaceful and book-loving person. He hated warlike nobles but founded two places of learning – Eton and King's College in Cambridge. He could be a nice king but his simple-mindedness led to mental illnesses. So, England had lost the war and was ruled by an ill king, so the nobles decided to fight for power. There were more than 60 powerful families in England that time, bound by marriages. Some of them had their own private armies. As a result two parties appeared – Lancastrians (Henry VI) and Yorkists (followers of the earl of March). The latter were led by Edward IV who won the throne in a year. Henry VI was put into Tower of London, but nine years later Lancastrians saved him and threw Edward away. Edward was able to raise one more army (he was supported by the merchants and his family encouraged the trade). In 1471 Edward came back to London, put Henry into the Tower, where the latter died soon (murdered). Edward IV died 12 years later, leaving 2 small sons (12 year old Edward V and his brother). Edward's brother, Richard of Gloucester captured the nephews, put them into prison and murdered them. Richard III wasn't popular. In 1485 a challenger with a very distant claim to the throne named Henry Tudor (through John of Gaunt) came to England with Breton soldiers. Both Lancastrians and Yorkists joined him. He defeated Richard III and took the crown.

In general fighting didn't destroy England, it took only 15 months and only the nobles took part. However, it was a disaster for the nobility. Nearly half of them were killed. So Tudor had to create a new national state. The year of 1485 is considered the end of the Middle Ages.

Government and society

Society was based upon rank. At the top were dukes, earls and other lords. Below them were knights, who were not armed people, but "gentlemen farmers". Every person with an income more than 20 thousand pounds a year was made a knight – even some of the farmers became "landed gentry", many "esquires" who had served knights, became the knights themselves.

Next to the gentlemen were the ordinary freemen of the towns, who controlled the life of the towns. Towns offered to poor men the possibility to become rich through trade. For example, Dick Whittington arrived in London as a poor boy from the countryside, became a successful merchant and Lord Major of London. But actually, Whittington was a son of the knight. A lot of land-owners sent their younger sons to towns to master some profession. On the contrary, merchants bought lands to join the nobility. In other words these two groups overlapped.

In the beginning the merchants organized the guilds to protect the trade of the whole town, but later they protected the members of the guild from those who were poor. The poor started to organize into their own unions – trade unions. The skilled workers tried to protect themselves from the guilds but were not really successful. During the 14th century the guilds started to decline in importance because of trading stations (“factories”) in different parts of Europe. The merchant organizations, operating the factories, became important on national level. However, they copied the methods of the guilds – making sure that English merchants exported through their factories, established normal prices and quality.

One of the most important of these factories was the “Company of the Staple” in Calais. The term “staple” means that certain goods can be sold in particular places. Calais became the staple for all English wool. The staple was convenient for merchants to avoid rivalry and for the Crown which could tax export easily. The second company was “Merchant Adventurers”.

In the 15th century wages for farm workers and skilled workers. There was plenty of meat and cereal. But there were signs of coming problems. More and more good land was used for sheep instead of crop. Rich sheep farmers started to fence in the land used by villagers. This led to the crisis.

Meanwhile, in the towns, a new middle class was developing, by the 15th century most merchants were well-educated. The lawyers were another class of city people. When law students were established, student lawyers lived in small inns on the western side of the City of London where they studied. Slowly these inns became part of the law school – accommodation.

By the end of the Middle Ages the more successful of these lawyers, merchants, cloth manufacturers, exporters, esquires, gentlemen and yeoman farmers were forming a new class – a middle class. These people, skilled in law, education, administration and trade formed a new atmosphere. They were described as the “literate class” who questioned the way of government and church work – they thought that it was their right to read the Bible in the way they wanted, they disliked serfdom because it was unchristian and not economic, the feudal system didn’t create wealth so was of no value for them.

When the king called the parliament which had to give them money, the representatives asked for king’s accounts. They got the chance to influence to some extent the king’s policies. During the time of Edward III’s reign Parliament became organized in two parts: the lords and the Commons which represented the middle class. Only those who had 40 shilling a year could be representatives to the Commons. That means that the poor couldn’t be heard. The alliance between the knights and merchants made the Parliament and separate the Commons from the Lords.

There was another change in the country. From the 12th century to 14th century local lord’s courts didn’t exist, but there were too many cases to judge. In 1363 Edward III appointed “justice of the peace” to do with smaller offences and to hold courts four times a year. These JPs were less important members of the landed gentry chosen for their honesty.

Little is known about life of women, but it was definitely hard. The Church taught that women should obey their husbands. It also spread two different ideas: they should be pure and holy and in the same time like Eve they shouldn’t be trusted. That’s why men worship them, but look down on them in the same time. Marriage was the most important event for women. The decision was made by the family and the most important factor was to increase the family’s wealth. Once married, a woman had to accept a husband as her master. A disobedient wife was often beaten. The first duty of a wife was to give children, sons preferably. Medicine was bad, so producing kids was dangerous. The wife of the noble in her husband’s absence was in charge of the manor, the servants, the cattle and so on. Besides she had to protect the

lands when attacked. She was expected to have knowledge of herbs and plants to make suitable medicines for the sick in the village, she also visited the poor to show that the lord cares for them. She had little time for her own children who were often sent away at the age of 8. Peasant's wives were busy making food and cloth. They worked in the fields, looked after the kids the pigs, the geese, made cheese and grew vegetables. A woman's position improved in her husband died. She could get control of the money her family had given to the husband before the marriage (about 1/3 of his total wealth). But she might marry again, because men wanted her land.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) When did the Hundred Year War start?
- 2) Why did the Hundred Year War begin?
- 3) Describe the main events of the War of Roses.
- 4) What was the structure of the English society?
- 5) Which class appeared in towns in the Late Middle Ages?

Тема 4. The Tudors

Лекция 4

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматривается деятельность английских королей династии Тюдоров, взаимоотношения Англии с соседними странами, гражданская война, экономическая ситуация и особенности жизнедеятельности разных классов английского общества.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) The Tudor Dynasty
- 2) England and its neighbors
- 3) Government and society

Ключевые слова: Henry VIII, Elizabeth I, Mary Stuart, trade, pirates, Parliament.

Глоссарий

Act of Supremacy – the act of Parliament, which declared the king of England the head of the Church.

Armada – a big fleet (Spanish).

Court of Star Chamber – the king's council to deal with lawless nobles.

Commons – the House of Commons, a “representative institution”, which contains a mixture of knights and merchant.

Monopoly – the right of a person or country to control the trade.

Parish – the area served by one church, the administrative unit.

Poor Law – the law passed in 1601 that made local people responsible for the poor in the district.

Soldier poets – brave in war and well-educated poets who showed the adventurous spirit of the age.

Vicar – the priest in the parish.

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. После ознакомления с лекционным материалом предусматривается выполнение практических заданий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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The Tudor Dynasty

Henry VII is less known than Elizabeth or her father, but he was more important in establishing monarchy and wealth. He supported merchants and based loyal power on good business sense. He believed that war is bad for business and business is good for the state. So he avoided quarrels with Scotland and France. During the War of Roses English trade was damaged. The German League destroyed English trade with northern Europe, after England's defeat in war with France the trade with Italy and France reduced. The Netherlands and Belgium offered a way for trade - Henry VII made an important agreement with them.

Henry VII was fortunate. Many nobles died in the war and their lands went to the king. Then he forbade everyone to keep armed men but for himself. The authority of law had been destroyed by lawless nobles, so Henry VII used the "Court of Star Chamber" (the king's council) to deal with them. Local justice started to operate again. Besides, the king encouraged the use of heavy fines as punishment to give the Crown money. Henry raised taxes for wars which he didn't fight then, he never spent money unless he had to. He was popular because he kept friendship with a middle class, he created a new nobility among them, so they were grateful. When Henry died in 1509 he left a lot of money (2 million). The only thing he spent money cheerfully – ships for merchants to support trade.

Henry VIII was unlike his father: cruel, wasteful and married several times. He wanted to become important in European politics. But France and Spain were very powerful. The king allied with Spain first of all, but then he changed sides, which didn't bring him anything. Henry VIII was disappointed, he had a magnificent court, spent a lot on wars, so he had no money in the end. Money from newly-discovered America added to inflation. The king ordered to reduce the amount of silver in the coins. It gave an immediate profits, but then rise in prices.

Henry VIII was always looking for money. As for the land of the nobles had been taken by his father, he aimed at the lands of the Church. The Church was a great landowner, the monasteries were not important to economical growth and were very unpopular (the monks didn't live religious life any more). Church was an international organization and couldn't be controlled by the king. If Henry VIII was powerful enough to control the pope he wouldn't have had necessity for reformation.

But in Europe there were more powerful countries, so Henry decided to enrich his wealth, controlling the church. There was another reason for standing up the authority of the Church. In 1510 Henry had married Catherine of Aragon (the widow of his elder brother Arthur). They had only a daughter Mary, but Henry VIII wanted sons. He asked the pope for divorce. Normally, he needn't have expected any difficulty, but the pope was controlled by Charles V, the Spain king and Catherine's nephew. The latter wanted Henry VIII to stay married, so the pope forbade the divorce.

Henry VIII was angry and in 1531 persuaded the bishops to make him head of the Church in England, which became law after the Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy. He was free to divorce Catherine and marry Anne Boleyn. The king's break with Church actually was political, not religious. Henry was a strong Catholic believer, he didn't approve the ideas of Reformation, but when he broke with the Church, he used the Parliament to make the break official – in 1536 England became politically a Protestant country, although the most popular religion was Catholic.

Once England accepted the separation from Rome Henry appointed Thomas Cromwell the king's chief minister. They made a survey of church property, closed 560 monasteries. He got money and became popular with landowners and merchants. He gave (sold) the lands to them, besides the locals took the stones of the church buildings to create their own houses. The monks were given a small sum of money and thrown away, most of them couldn't find a job and became beggars.

Henry VIII died in 1547 leaving behind him his sixth wife, Catherine Parr, and 3 children: Mary, Elizabeth and Edward.

Edward VI was only a child when he became a king, the country was ruled by the council. All the members of the council got their lands after the reformation, so they supported the Protestants not to give the lands back. They did their best to make Edward a Protestant. Most people were still Catholics, that's why to change their attitudes a new prayer book was introduced to make sure that all churches followed the "right religion". The country divided – some people followed a new religion, some stayed Catholics. Edward died when he was 16. A group of nobles tried to put Lady Jane Grey on the throne, but Mary (the elder daughter) took control of the kingdom. She was supported by the locals who didn't like greedy Protestants. Mary I

wasn't wise. She was the first woman on the throne for 400 years. Women were considered inferior to men, so the marriage of Mary's was a difficult thing: no matter who she married she would be inferior to the guy (local or foreigner). She married King Philip of Spain at last, having asked for permission of the Parliament. This was an unpopular choice – people didn't like a new king and rebelled. Mary dealt with them with cruelty, then she started burning protestants. As a result only the information that Mary was dying naturally prevented the rebellion.

Elizabeth in 1558 became a queen. Mary had had plans to execute her before as a potential leader of the revolt, but Elizabeth was wise enough not to support officially any religion when Mary was alive, so Mary allowed her to live. Elizabeth tried to find peaceful solution of the problems. The kind of Protestantism finally agreed in 1559 was even closer to Catholicism, but the church stayed under the king's control. The “parish”, the area served by one church, the size of the village, became the unit of state administration. People had to go to church by law and were fined if they didn't. That made a “vicar” a very important person. Books of sermons were introduced to church – there were not only the Bible teachings but the ideas that rebellion against the Crown is a sin.

The struggle between Catholics and Protestants continued. France and Spain were Catholics, both kings wanted to marry Elizabeth to get her country. But Elizabeth remembered the harm, which Mary produced by her marriage, so she avoided it. Finally there was a danger from the local Catholic nobles who wanted to put Mary Stuart on the throne. Mary was Elizabeth's close relative and strong Catholic. Her mother was French, Mary was brought up in France and became a French queen. When her husband died she came back to her country, but became unpopular among nobles (marriages), so she ran to England and asked for help. Mary was kept by Elizabeth as prisoner for 20 years, Elizabeth fund some plots aimed at making Mary a queen but couldn't decide for a long time to execute her – Mary had relatives in France and Spain, besides, her son was the heir of the English throne. But once Mary claimed that if she became the queen of England, Philip of Spain would be her heir of the throne, so Elizabeth executed her. The act was popular

because the hatred of Catholics increased because of coming invasion of the Spanish king.

England and her neighbors

During the Tudor period, English foreign policy changed several times. Henry VII remained friendly with neighbors, built ships. His son Henry VIII was less successful, because he was ambitious, but he spent money producing guns, which became one of the best in Europe. Elizabeth thought trade very important for England, so the trade rivals of England became its enemies. The idea remained till 19th century.

Spain was the main trade rival, so it was recognized the enemy. Spain was ruling the Netherlands that time who were the Protestant and always in rebel. Spanish soldiers could only reach the Netherlands by sea, by English Channel exactly. Elizabeth started helping the Dutch. She suggested them to use her harbors in order to attack the Spanish ships. After 1585, Elizabeth started supporting the Dutch with money and soldiers – that was a war declaration with Spain.

English ships had already attacked the Spanish ships coming from American colonies loaded with treasure. It was the result of Spain's refusal to allow England to trade with American colonies. The English ships were owned by "pirates", but Elizabeth supported them, sharing their treasury. Elizabeth regularly apologized to Spain but Philip knew the truth. The pirates were also traders – most famous among them Francis drake and Martin Flobisher.

Philip decided to conquer England as quicker as possible to do with the Dutch after that. He ordered to build a big fleet "Armada" to move the army through the English Channel. In 1587 Francis Drake attacked and destroyed part of the fleet. Philip built one more large fleet, but the ships were designed to carry soldiers and the few fighting ones were not as light and quick as the English ones. The English ships were longer and narrower, that meant quicker, and the guns were better. The Spanish Armada was defeated more by bad weather than by English guns. Ships were blown northwards, wrecked on the rocky coast. But the war didn't stop till Elizabeth died.

In general, Elizabeth followed two policies – supported the pirates who attacked Spanish ships and took their treasures and in the same time encouraged English

traders to settle abroad and create colonies. The second policy led to creation of the empire in 17th century. The first English colonies sailed to America at the end of the century. One of the first was Sir Walter Raleigh who brought tobacco to England. The settlers tried (without success) to start colonies in Virginia (“unmarried queen”). That was the beginning. England started selling West African slaves to work for the Spanish in America. By 1650 slavery had become an important trade bringing wealth particularly to Bristol. During Elizabeth’s reign more “chartered companies” were established. A “charter” gave a company the right to all the business in its particular trade or the region, the company gave the part of its profits to the Crown in return. A number of the companies: the Eastland Company to trade with Scandinavia, the Levant Company to trade with Ottoman Empire, The Africa Company to trade slaves. The East India Company was established because the Dutch controlled the spice trade with the East Indies (Indonesia). Spices were very important for making the winter salted meat tastier. The English wanted its share but were not successful. However, the East India Company started to operate in India, Persia and Japan. That led to first difficulties with the Dutch.

The Scottish monarchs tried to introduce centralized monarchy, but it was hard because the economy was weak and society more lawless. The kings tried to control the borders and the northern clans, who were brilliant fighters. In the same time the Scottish kings didn’t want to quarrel with the clans because they helped to attack the English. Knowing that they were weak, the Scottish kings avoided war with England. They made a peace treaty with Henry VII, and James IV (the Scottish king) married Henry’s daughter Margaret. But Henry VIII wanted to fight, he destroyed the Scottish army and even killed James IV. The Scottish society was divided two groups: the first insisted on close relationship with England, the second didn’t like the English and wanted to stay loyal to alliance with France. Besides, there was a talk of Catholic invasion of England by France and Spain, many Scots wanted to stay on the side of Catholic Europe. Henry VIII reminded the Scots that it was dangerous to work against him – he came to Scotland again, defeated the Scots and made James V promise to give the baby Mary Stuart to him as a daughter-in-law. The agreement was achieved in 1543. But the Scots were not happy to be ruled by England. The

Scottish parliament turned down the marriage agreement. For next two years the British soldiers punished them by burning and destroying southern Scotland. Rather than give little Mary to the English, the Scots sent her to France where she married the French king. Mary returned back to England in 1561 as both queen and widow, she was Catholic, but during the time she was in France Scotland had become officially and popularly Protestant. The Scottish nobles who supported England had welcomed Protestantism because it brought them closer to England and they could take over the great wealth of the Church. But the Scots did not give the monarch authority over the new protestant Scottish “Kirk”. The new church was rather democratic, it had no bishops and was ruled by a General Assembly, taught the importance of personal belief and the study of the Bible. That is why the Scots were very educated. The new church didn’t like catholic Mary, but the latter was careful and made it clear that she wouldn’t bring Catholicism back. Mary married again to Lord Darnley, but then allowed to murder him and married the murderer Bothwell. Society was shocked. Neither English nor Scots looked forward now to Mary’s succeeding the English throne. She had poor judgment and wrong behaviour. She found herself at war with the locals and had to go to England where she was executed.

Mary’s son James VI started to rule at the age of 12. When he was the king only in Scotland he was not a bad king – he could stay friends with England (he was promised the English throne) and with catholic countries Spain and France. He took royal control over Catholics, Protestants and the Church. After Elizabeth’s death he got the English throne and united the kingdom but on the new post he became known as a weak man and a bad decision-maker.

Government and society

The Tudors didn’t like to govern through Parliament. Henry VII used it only for law-making, called it seldom, only if he had a particular job for them. Henry VIII had used it first to raise money for his military adventures, then for his struggle with Rome. The kings didn’t realize that by involving Parliament into his business they gave them the power they had never had before. Parliament strengthened its authority during Edward VI’s reign by ordering the new prayer book to be used in all churches

and forbidding Catholic mass. Only two things stopped Tudors from getting rid of Parliament: they needed money and support of the merchants. In the 16th century Parliament met only when the king needed it. For instance, Elizabeth called Parliament 13 times in 40 years.

During the century the power moved from the Lords to the Commons. They were richer and more influential. The idea of getting rid of the lords appeared first in the 16th century. The system of representing 2 persons from each county to the Commons remained the rule, but the number of Commons in general doubled because of Welsh representatives and other members from new-invaded counties. Parliament didn't represent the people the people – the members didn't live in the place they represented, they were rich and loyal to the king. In order to control discussion in Parliament the king appointed the Speaker, whose obligation was to make sure that parliament discussed what the king wanted and make the decision the king wanted. Until the end of Tudor's reign the Parliament was to do 3 things: agree to new taxes, support the laws suggested by the Crown, advise the king if the latter ask them for it. In order for Parliament to do the things MPs were given the following rights: freedom of speech, from arrest, to meet the monarch.

The Tudor Monarchs realized that they gave too much financial power into the hands of Parliament. So the kings tried to find other ways in getting money. Elizabeth unwisely sold "monopolies" (which gave a person or company total control over a trade), she also sold posts in government. In their old age Elizabeth and her adviser (Burghley) became careless and slow in making decisions. They allowed the tax system to become less effective. England needed tax reform which could be carried with the agreement of Parliament. Parliament wanted to avoid the topic, local landlords as well. Besides. The JPs, who were responsible to collect the taxes, were the landlords obliged to pay, so they didn't. Parliament had the rights so it was a matter of time for Parliament to challenge the Crown. It led to war in the 17th century.

Even when Tudors came to power much of the countryside was untouched: there were still wild forests, animals. Scattered across the countryside were human settlements, villagers and towns. Few towns had more than 3000 people, nearly all of them had fields to farm. In the 16th century the picture changed. The population

increased, the unused land was cleared for sheep, wood was cut to use for shipbuilding industry. England started to experience problems. The prices rose, but the wages fell – the result of growing population. The government reduced the amount of metal in the coins that made the situation worse.

In the countryside the people who did best were ‘yeomen’, who had more than 100 acres of land, employed people, could increase the prices. They were farmers during the week and “gentlemen” on Sundays. Most people had less than 20 acres, they didn’t have money even to pay rent. Many landlords understood that it was more profitable to keep cattle (wool was expensive), so they continued fencing off lands of the villagers. It was illegal, but the JPs were landlords, so the villager lost their lands. Many people became unemployed.

In 1536 large numbers of people from the north marched to London to show their anger at the dissolution of the monasteries (the monasteries had often given work and food for the poor). The movement was cruelly put down and the leaders executed. People often stole food and were hanged for that. The government produced the law that the local sheriff could take any unemployed person and give him to a local farmer who wanted to use him, a person found unemployed for the second time was executed. In 1563 Parliament made JPs responsible for deciding of fair wages and working hours. A worker started at 5 a.m. and was working till 8 p.m. with an hour or two to have a meal. Workers were not allowed to leave the parish they lived without a special permission.

Good harvests saved the country for some years, but the bad ones (1594-97) made the life of the poor even worse. In 1601 Parliament passed the Poor Law. This made local people responsible for the poor in the district. It gave power to JPs to raise money in the parish in order to provide the poor with food and home. Many of the poor went to towns where there was a danger that they could join together and fight against the authorities (somewhere they did). The patterns of employment changed a little – the wool cloth was expensive and people were needed to produce it (spinning, washing and so on). The successful men showed off their profits by building magnificent houses and churches in the villages they lived in.

The lives of the poor and rich were very different (silk and wheat for the rich, simple clothes and barley bread for the poor)

There was progress in steel-producing, necessary for modern weapons. Muskets became popular, knives, nails, clocks were produced as well. Birmingham and Manchester became important towns using coal not wood to operate the factories. Coal became the most commonly used fuel in England. London used coal a lot, that's why the smoke darkened the sky over London.

Вопросы для самоконтроля:

- 1) Name the main representatives of the Tudor Dynasty. What are they famous for?
- 2) Who were the main rivals of England at sea?
- 3) Which policies did Elizabeth follow?
- 4) How can Mary Stuart's actions as a queen of Scotland be characterized?
- 5) Which obligations did Parliament have?

Тема 5. The Stuarts

Лекция 5

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматривается деятельность английских королей династии Стюартов, взаимоотношения короля и парламента, период республики в Англии, экономическая ситуация и особенности жизнедеятельности разных классов английского общества.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) Crown and Parliament
- 2) Republican and Restoration Britain
- 3) Life and thought

Ключевые слова: Parliament, republic, Cromwell, Whigs, Tories, Bill of Rights.

Глоссарий

Divine right – the belief that the king is chosen by God and can be judged only by God.

Levellers – people who wanted a new equality among men: all men over 21 must have the right to vote.

Lord-Protector – Oliver Cromwell, the ruler of England from 1653 to 1658.

Petition (Bill) of Rights – the law that stated the power of parliament over monarch.

Puritans – a religious branch of Christianity.

Royalists – a group of people who supported the king and his authority.

Tories – the party in Parliament, which consisted of inheritors of the “Royalist” position.

Whigs – the party in Parliament, which consisted of people who believed in religious freedom and supported the idea that the king should always have the consent of Parliament.

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. После ознакомления с лекционным материалом предусматривается выполнение практических заданий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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Crown and parliament

The first signs of trouble between Crown and Parliament came in 1601, when the Commons were not happy because of Elizabeth's policy of selling monopolies, but they didn't want to upset the queen whom they feared. Like Elizabeth, James I tried to rule without Parliament. He had strong beliefs and opinions. The most important of these was the divine right of kings – the king is chosen by God and can be judged only by God. Besides, he expressed the ideas openly. In general, he had a habit of saying smth true in the wrong moment.

When Elizabeth died she left James with a huge debt. James had to ask Parliament to raise a tax to pay debt. Parliament agreed but in return insisted on the right to discuss James home and foreign policy. James, however, insisted that he alone had a “divine right” to make the decisions. Parliament disagreed and it was supported by law. James had made a mistake of appointing Elizabeth's minister, Sir Edward Coke, the Chief Justice. He made decisions based on the law which limited the king's power. He thought that the king was not above the law and couldn't produce the law. Laws could be made by Parliament. James removed Coke from the position of Chief Justice, but as a MP he continued trouble the king. He reminded Parliament of Magna Carta. James was successful in ruling without Parliament from 1611 to 1621, which was possible because Britain remained at peace. The king couldn't afford the cost of the army. In 1618 Parliament wished to go to war against Catholics, the king didn't agree. Until his death in 1625 James was always quarreling with parliament over money and its desire to play an important role in foreign policy.

Charles I found himself quarrelling with the Commons even more bitterly, mainly over money. At last Charles dissolved Parliament. Charles's need for money forced him to call Parliament, but every time he did it, he quarreled with them. When he tried raising money without Parliament (borrowing them from merchants, bankers, landowners), Parliament decided to make Charles agree to certain “parliamentary rights”. It hoped Charles couldn't raise enough money without its help, and in 1628 this happened. In return for the money Charles needed, the king promised to raise money only by Act of parliament, not to imprison anyone without lawful reason. According to this Petition of Rights gave the right to Parliament to control state

money, national budget, and the law. The petition made nonsense of a king's 'divine right'. Charles didn't like it and dissolve Parliament.

Next ten years Charles ruled without Parliament. He balanced his budget and made administration efficient, besides he got rid of dishonesty begun during Tudor period. By 1637 he was in the height of his power, it seemed that Parliament would never meet.

In 1637 Charles began to make mistakes. These resulted from the religious situation in the country. His father James I liked that the Anglican Church had bishops who supported him as the head of the English Church. In the same time he disliked the Presbyterian Kirk of Scotland, which had no bishops and was democratic. There were people in England known as Puritans, who, like the Scots, wanted a democratic Church. Queen Elizabeth was careful to prevent them from gaining power in the Anglican Church (she even executed some of them). In 1604 the Puritans met James to ask him to remove bishops, but he refused. Charles I shared his father's dislike of the Puritans. He married a French catholic, and the marriage was unpopular in Britain. There were a lot of Puritans among MPs and wealth-creating class. But Charles took no notice of the feeling and appointed the enemy of the Puritans, William Laud, as Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud brought back into the Anglican Church many Catholic practices.

Archbishop Laud tried to make the Scottish Kirk accept the same organization as the Church in England. When he tried to introduce a new prayer book in 1637, the result was national resistance to the introduction of bishops. In spring 1638 Charles I met a rebel Scottish army. Without the help of parliament he was able to put together an inexperienced army. He knew that he couldn't win, so he agreed to respect all Scottish political and religious freedoms. He also paid a large sum of money to persuade the Scots to return home. It was impossible for Charles to find this money without Parliament, in return Parliament made the king sign a new law that Parliament should meet once in 3 years at least. But several months later Charles I made himself clear that he didn't want to keep his word.

Events in Scotland made Charles depend on parliament, but events in Ireland resulted in civil war. James I had continued Elizabeth's policy and had colonized

Ulster (the northern part of Ireland) with farmers from Scottish Lowlands. The Catholic Irish were sent off (even the workers were substituted by Protestant workers). In 1641 Ireland exploded in rebellion. Over 3000 people were killed in Ulster. In London Charles I and Parliament were quarreling over who should control the army against the rebels. Many believed that Charles needed the army only to dissolve Parliament by force. Charles's friendship to Catholic Church increased the fears of Protestants. Besides, some Irish rebels claimed that they were against Protestant Parliament, not the king.

In 1642 Charles tried to arrest 5 MPs but failed. His action convinced parliament its supporters all over the country that they had good reasons to fear. London locked its gates against the king. Charles moved to Nottingham where he gathered an army to defeat MPs who oppose him. Most people didn't want to interfere, in fact 10 % became involved. Most of the House of Lords and a few from the Commons supported Charles. The Royalists ("Cavaliers") controlled most of the north and west. Parliament controlled east and southwest (London). At first this army consisted of London apprentices (they got the name "Roundheads" because of their short cuts). Parliament was supported by the navy, merchants, Londoners. In other words it controlled most part of national wealth. The Royalists had no way of raising money. By 1645 the army was unpaid, soldiers ran away and at last in 1645 at Naseby the royal army was defeated. Most people were happy that the war ended because they had a lot of interference in their lives.

Republican and Restoration Britain

Several MPs commanded the Parliamentary army. Of these the strongest was a gentleman farmer Oliver Cromwell, who created a new model regular army, which consisted of educated men fighting for their beliefs, but not the country people. Cromwell and his advisers captured the king in 1645, but they didn't know what to do with them. Charles himself continued to encourage rebellion against Parliament even from the prison. For example, he encouraged the Scots to rebel. The latter were beaten. After that some Puritan officers demanded the king to be executed for treasury.

The parliamentary leaders had a problem – they could bring Charles back to the throne or create a new political system. By this time most people in the country, in the Houses of parliament as well, wanted the king back. They feared Parliament and the army. But some army commanders (Puritans) wanted to get rid of the king, they believed that they could build God's kingdom. Two-thirds of the MPs didn't want to put the king on trial, they were removed from Parliament by the army. The remaining 53 judged him, on 31 January 1649 he was executed. He died bravely, that made many people pity that they didn't have a king any more.

From 1649-1660 Britain was a republic, which was not a success. Cromwell created a severe government, got rid of the Anglican Church and the House of Lords. The Scots invited Charles II (the king's son) to join them in fighting against the Parliament. They were defeated and Charles II escape to France. Cromwell took his army to Ireland to punish the locals for killing protestants in 1641, and for Royalist rebellion. He captured two towns (Drogheda and Wexford) and killed 6000 people.

The army was very powerful. Disagreement between Parliament and the army resulted in Parliament's dissolution in 1653. In the army itself there were people, who held "strange" thoughts. A group called "Levellers" wanted a new equality among men: all men over 21 must have the right to choose MPs, Parliament must meet every two years, complete religious freedom. In the middle of 17th century these thoughts didn't have support, so when "Levellers" rebelled, they were defeated.

From 1653 Britain was governed by "Lord Protector" – Oliver Cromwell. He had a power greater than Charles I, governed the country severely through the army that made him extremely unpopular. Besides, he forbade to celebrate Christmas and Easter, play games on Sunday. When he died in 1658, the Protectorate (Cromwell's administration) collapsed. Cromwell's son wasn't strong enough to rule. The army commanders began to quarrel, one of them marched to London in 1660, arranged for free elections and invited Charles II to return. The republic was over.

When Charles II returned he cancelled the acts of Cromwell's government. He managed with skill – the new king made peace with his father's enemies. Only those who took part in execution were punished. Other MPs got good positions in a new monarchy. But generally Parliament stayed weak. Charles II shared his father's belief

in the divine right of the king. Besides, he admired the absolute ruler of France Louis XIV.

Charles II hoped to make peace between the different religious groups – Puritans and Catholics should meet freely. But Parliament was Anglican and didn't support the idea. As Charles was attracted to Catholics, the parliament was afraid for him to become a catholic, so they passed the Test Act I 1673 which prevented any catholic from holding public office.

The first political parties appeared in England. "Whigs" ("cattle-drivers") were afraid of an absolute monarchy and catholic faith, but believed in religious freedom. They were against regular army. As Charles didn't have children they were afraid of his catholic brother James following him, but they didn't have another candidate. They were not against the Crown, but believed that the king should always have the consent of Parliament. The second party "Tories" (Irish word for thieves) consists of inheritors of the "Royalist" position. These two parties became the basis of two-parliamentary system of English government.

The struggle over Catholicism became a crises when the news came that Catholics wanted to murder Charles and put James on the throne. It wasn't true, but the trick worked. Frightened Parliament passed an Act forbidding any Protestant to be a member of the Commons or Lords. But nevertheless after Charles II, James became a king (Charles II thought this a "divine right" of his brother). Tories and Anglicans were delighted, but not for a long time. James, being a governor of Scotland, had killed a lot of Protestants in Scotland. Being a king, James II tried to remove Laws, which forbade Catholics enter the Houses. Besides he decided to allow Catholic Church work in England. Parliament was angry, especially Tories, who had supported the king before. James II tried to get rid of Torie's gentry – he changed two thirds of JPs, substituting them by the people of low status.

In spite of their anger Whigs, Tories and Anglicans did nothing because they were waiting for Mary (Protestant James II's daughter) to get the throne after James' death. She was married a Holland ruler William of Orange (also a protestant). But this hope was destroyed when in 1688 James got a son. Parliament didn't want one more catholic king, so they invited William of Orange to invade England. William

was at war with France so he needed English wealth. He entered London, but the crown was offered only to Mary. William didn't like it and parliament offered the crown to them both. Parliament could give crown to William by choice not by inheritance because they had announced that James II lost his rights to the crown when he had fled from the country.

The idea that Parliament who ruled by "consent of people" was more important than the king flourished in 1688 (the Glorious revolution). The power of parliament over monarch was written into the Bill of Rights in 1689. The king was unable to raise taxes or keep an army without the consent of Parliament, he couldn't act against MPs for their political activity. In 1701 Parliament passed the Act of settlement to make sure only Protestant could get the crown. After Mary's death (if she had no children), the crown should go to her sister Anne, who was married to German elector of Hanover (George). Even now if a person is catholic, he (she) can't be a king of the UK.

Life and thought

By 1714 people's thoughts changed greatly. There were several exciting scientific ideas, the main of which was that everything in the world had natural explanation. That made the British self-confident. Besides, Britain became a powerful country that also made people feel confident.

The influence of Puritanism increased greatly during the 17th century, particularly among the merchants. They persuaded James I to permit a new official translation of the Bible which encouraged Bible reading among the literate. Someone understood the Bible in a revolutionary way. As a result in the 17th century Puritanism led to the formation of a large number of small religious groups. The most important were the Baptists and the Quakers (all of them called Nonconformists). The Quakers became famous for their social work, they were sure that men and women are equal, besides they were pacifists. Because of all that they were not liked by the ruling class. The Anglican Church unlike the Nonconformists were strong politically but weak intellectually. For some Nonconformists the opposition to their beliefs was too difficult to bear, that's why they went to America (free state). Catholics also went to America and settled in Maryland. On the contrary there were people who went in

from abroad: Jews were allowed to come by Cromwell, Huguenots from France escaped to Britain.

Revolution in thinking came with revolution in science. The new mood appeared at the very beginning of the century by Francis Bacon, who was James I's Lord Chancellor. He argued that every scientific idea must be tested by experiment. With idea and experiment following one after the other, the whole world should be understood. In 1628 William Harvey discovered the circulation of blood and this led to great advances in medicines. These scientific studies were encouraged by the Stuarts. The Royal Society became an important center where scientists could meet, speak, share information. In 1666 the Cambridge professor of Mathematics Isaac Newton began to study gravity and published his discovery in 1684. Newton was encouraged and financed by his friend Edmund Halley (who was tracking a comet) in 1682. The discovery of the geometric movements of stars destroyed old beliefs in magic.

In 1666 after a year of plague, London was nearly destroyed by fire. Christopher Wren, the greatest architect of the UK built the city again in modern style. In the 17th century first newspapers appeared, many of them but for news included advertisements.

The situation for the poor improved in the second half of the 17th century. Prices fell compared with wages, fewer people asked for help from the parish. But it was the middle class who continued to do well. By the middle of the century the government had begun to control the trade in cereals to make sure that merchants didn't export these while Britain still needed it. By 1670 Britain was able to export cereals to Europe where living conditions were worse. Trade changed a lot during the century. The regions became less economically separated from each other. The cities and villages were situated near the rivers and streams, so waterways became very important ways of transportation, allowing every region to produce what they were good at.

Improved transportation resulted in a change in buying and selling. Most towns didn't have shops before the 17th century. They had market days when farmers and manufacturers sold the goods in the town squares. By 1660, however, most towns had

shops. The shopkeepers traveled around the country and bought the goods to sell them in the towns. Towns with shops grew quicker than towns without them. London remained the largest city (500000 people). The next cities were Norwich, Newcastle, Bristol (25000 people in each). After 1666 the rich citizens had water supplied to the house through wooden pipes. The city streets had traffic jams, noise was even worse than today (iron-tired wheels and the hammering of craftsmen).

In London there was a new class of rich “aristocrats”, most of whom easily had bought their high positions. The old nobility didn’t want to accept the new rich as equals. They called themselves “squires” (the ruling class of countryside gentry). After 1650 the rich started to meet in the new coffeehouses, which quickly became the meeting places for conversations and politics. The ordinary houses went to the drinking houses, called “alehouses”, in town and country. By the end of the century the government had secret informers to listen to the talks. The squires and JPs governed locally during Cromwell’s Protectorate, continued to do so. They had the power to tax for local purposes, to call out soldiers and to try most criminals.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) How did relationships between the crown and Parliament develop in the XVIIth century?
- 2) Why did the republican system fail in Britain?
- 3) What is Puritanism?
- 4) How did the situation change for the poor?
- 5) Which discoveries were made as a result of revolution in thinking?

Тема 6. The eighteenth century

Лекция 6

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматриваются особенности развития Великобритании в 18 веке, особенности внешней и внутренней политики государства, экономическая ситуация и особенности жизнедеятельности разных классов английского общества, индустриальная революция.

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) Politics and Finance
- 2) Life in Town and Country

3) The years of Industrial Revolution

Ключевые слова: Cabinet, colonies, enclosure, workhouse, industrial revolution.

Глоссарий

Cabinet – the government ministers who work together.

Enclosure – the process of enclosing the lands of peasants to be used for mixed animals and cereals.

Industrial revolution – a change of economy which was based on inventing machines for basic jobs and producing iron goods.

Jacobism - the political movement in Great Britain and Ireland to restore the Roman Catholic Stuart King James II of England and his heirs to the thrones of England, Scotland and Ireland.

Methodism – a religious movement, which met the needs of the industrial working class.

Radicals – British politicians who supported the colonies.

Regulating act – the act of parliament, passed in 1788, which reduced cruelty to working children.

Speenhamland Act – the act of local magistrates which gave the money to the poor.

Workhouse – the place where most of the poor were kept and fed.

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. После ознакомления с лекционным материалом предусматривается выполнение практических заданий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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Politics and finance

When Queen Anne died in 1714 it was not for sure that her husband George (the ruler of Hanover) would be the king. Tories wanted James III (the son of James II) to be the king. If he had given up his Catholicism he would have got the crown, but James didn't want to do it. Nor would he give up his claim to the throne. He tried to win it by force. But George I had no problem to win "Jacobites". Because of the Tory's connection with "Jacobites", George I allowed the Whigs to form his government.

Government power increased because the king spoke only German and wasn't interested a lot in the kingdom. Among his minister was Robert Walpole, who was the first prime minister- the most powerful person for over 20 years. He came to power as a result of his financial ability. At the end of the 17th century the government had to borrow a lot of money to pay the wars in Europe. In 1694 a group of creditors established the Bank of England and made the government borrow only from it. They got authority to raise money using "bank notes". Actually "promissory notes" had been created 600 years ago – money dealers often give the notes signed by themselves, which could be given to the third person.

That time there were a lot of people who wanted to invest the money in some trading companies doing business in the West Indies and so on. The possibility of high profits made a share in these companies very expensive. In 1720 the South Sea Company offered to pay the debts of the government and got monopoly rights to trading in the South Seas. It raised the money by selling the shares, but then people lost confidence in them and the shares became cheap. Investors lost everything, but

Walpole brought back public confidence. He made sure that this situation would never happen again, he tried to make companies responsible for the money they borrowed by the shares.

Walpole developed the idea that government ministers should work together in a small group called “Cabinet” – all ministers were responsible for the decisions, any minister who disagrees with the Cabinet should resign. The Prime Minister made sure that the power of the king is limited by the constitution. The limits were these: the king could not be a catholic. He couldn’t remove or change laws, the king was dependant on parliament for his financial income and for his army. The king was supposed to “choose” ministers, but actually the ministers belonged to the majority in Parliament.

Walpole wanted to avoid wars to increase taxes to pay back the national debt. He put taxes on luxury goods (tea, coffee, chocolate, which were used by the rich). That didn’t help a lot, but made Walpole unpopular. The most important enemy of Walpole was William Pitt “the Elder” (Lord Chatham). He wanted Britain to be economically strong and supported trade. He wanted Britain to beat France in the race for and overseas trade empire.

In 1733 France made an alliance with Spain, which feared Britain a lot, because it could give France advantage in trade with Spain. England had been trying unsuccessfully to develop trade with Spain. They decided at last to take over as many French trading posts as possible.

War with France broke out in 1756. The English let Prussia, its ally to do most of the fighting in Europe. England decided to concentrate on preventing French ships going in or out the ports. The war against France went all over the world: The British took Quebec and Montreal. This gave the British control of the fish fur and wood trade. Defeating French in India the British went to control Indian territories. Many Britons started to go to India to make their fortunes. Unlike previous Europeans they had no respect to Indian culture, so when India became a British colony in 1759 British-Indian relations became bad. So in 1759 Britain was drunk with victory, the English became very proud and thought that the best things were done in England.

But a new king, George III, came to the throne in 1760 and didn't want Chatham to continue an expensive war. In 1763 George III made peace with France, without informing Prussia and leaving it alone against France. For the rest of the century British international trade increased rapidly. By the end of the century the West Indies were the most profitable part of Britain's new empire. British-made knives, swords and cloth were taken to West Africa and exchanged for slaves. These were taken to the West Indies, and the ships returned to Britain carrying sugar grown by slaves.

George III was the first Hanoverian to be born in England. He wanted to take a more active part in governing Britain and to be free to choose his own ministers. As long as he worked with the small group of aristocrats, who also controlled the Parliament, he had no problems. Parliament still represented only a very small number of people, because only house owners with a certain income had the right to vote. It wasn't difficult for the rich to make sure that the man they wanted was elected to Parliament. Most ordinary landowners held lands as tenants from the greater land owners. That's why they didn't dare to vote against the wishes of the great landowners. Other voters were frightened into voting for the right man, or were given the money. In this way aristocrats controlled the Parliament which wasn't democratic that time at all.

However, there was one MP, John Wilkes, who saw things differently. Wilkes was a Whig and didn't like the new government of George III. He believed that politics should be open to discussion. When George III made peace with France without telling Prussia, Wilkes printed an attack on the government in the newspaper. Wilkes was arrested and all his private papers were confiscated. The government claimed that it had arrested Wilkes "of state necessity", but in court Wilkes won the case – the judge stated that individual is more important than the state and can't be arrested without any reason. This made the king angry but made Wilkes the most popular man in London.

The ruling class was not used to considering the opinion of ordinary people. The number of newspapers increased, which were read by the enormous number of literate people, who didn't vote but were interested in the important matters of the

country. That increased the number of political discussion about politics or royal family – “conversational clubs” met in different towns. Public opinion slowly became powerful influence on politics. Wilkes victory was important because it showed that Parliament was not for people and it’s time to organize political activity fighting for their rights.

In 1764 there was a serious quarrel over taxation between the British government and its colonies in America. By 1770 there were 2.5 million colonists in America. Some colonists decided that it wasn’t lawful for the British to tax them without their agreement. Political opinion in Britain was divided. Some of them thought taxation fair because English were responsible for protection Americans against France, some of them thought that there mustn’t be taxation without representation. In 1773 a group of colonists at Boston threw a shipload of tea into the sea rather than pay tax on it. The British government closed the port, Americans in return prevented British goods from entering America. That was the rebellion and the War of Independence began. The war in America lasted from 1775 until 1783. The result was a disastrous defeat for the British government. It lost everything but for Canada. Many British politicians supported the colonists. They were called “radicals”. The war in America gave strength to the new ideas.

Life in town and country

In 1770 England and Wales had a population of about 5.5 million, by the end of the century including Ireland and Scotland the total population was about 13 million. In 1700 England was still the land of villages. In the northern areas large cities were just beginning to grow. By the middle of the century Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield and Leeds were large, but considered villages and had no representation in Parliament.

The towns smelled bad, there were no drains and dirt was thrown straight to the streets. Besides they were used as lavatories. Some farmers around London took the dirt to enrich the land. The streets were muddy and narrow. The towns were centers of disease. As a result only one child in four survived. The poor were buried together in large holes, which stayed uncovered to the moment it was full. Poor found comfort

drinking gin and playing cards. Quakers tried to stop alcoholism introducing beer instead of gin.

During the century the efforts were taken to make the life healthier. Streets were built wider for carriages to pass each other, from 1734 London had a street lighting system. After 1760 towns asked Parliament to tax their citizens in order to provide cleaning and lighting. Each house owner was ordered to pay a local tax.

Catholics and Jews were still not allowed into parliament, but could enter the town councils. These local authorities grew bringing together the merchants and industrial leaders. Under their guidance London became clean to the end of the century. There were four main classes of people in 18th century towns: the wealthy merchants; the ordinary merchants and traders; the skilled craftsmen; the workers with no skill and constant work.

Social conditions were probably better than in any other country in Europe. British aristocrats had less power over the poor than in any other country. For example, in 1760, an English lord was hanged for killing the servant. Foreigners noticed how easy it was for the English to move up and down the social “ladder”. It was difficult to see the difference between the aristocracy, the gentry and the middle class of merchants. However, the difference between rich and poor could be very great. The duke had an income of 100000 pounds each year, the workers were lucky to have 15 pounds a year.

The comfortable life of the gentry was rather monotonous. The men were hunting and carrying out “improvements” to their estates: rebuilding houses, collecting trees and plants, arranging natural-looking gardens. Women visited London during the winter, where parties were held, but didn’t take part in serious matters. People believed that the natural spring waters such as Bath were good for their health. These towns became fashionable places for the people who wanted to be seen.

The Scottish Highlands had a kind of disaster at the end of the 18th century. The clan chiefs began to realize that money could be made from sheep for the wool trade, so they pushed the people off the lands. Poor Highlanders lived on the streets of Glasgow; some of them went to Canada and Australia. Clan society had gone forever.

In England the countryside changed more than town. Most farming at the beginning of the century was done as it had been for centuries. Each village stood in the middle of 3-4 large fields and the villagers decided together what to grow. But individuals continue to work on their small parts of land. During the 18th century most of the lands was enclosed to be used for mixed animals and cereals. People with money convinced their MPs to pass a law which made enclosure legal.

One main cause of the enclosures was that a number of lords had a lot of money to invest. This came partly from trade and investments in coal mines and iron works. Most of them wanted to invest the money on the land, then, having improved their land they looked to other's. A lot of improvements were made, animals could be kept for a year and the people had fresh meat not only in the summer. The improvements were nearly impossible when strip farming situated, because the farmers couldn't afford the machinery. Richer farmers wanted to change the system of farming and landholding because the new methods produced more food which was necessary for increasingly growing population.

Improved use of land made it possible to grow wheat everywhere, but in spite of all these, Britain could no longer feed itself by the end of the century because of rapidly growing population. But in social terms the enclosure was damaging – many people lost their lands. Another problem was the years of bad harvest. Local magistrates created the act (Speenhamland Act) which gave the money to the poor. For example, if the wages weren't enough the government gave the money to people. Besides, the money were given according to the number of members of the family - as the result the family became larger.

Neighbouring parishes joined together to built a “parish workhouse” where most of the poor were kept and fed. Some local businessmen hired the workhouse to work on his lands and factories. He provided food but made them work a lot – little better than slavery.

In eighteenth century families began to express affection more openly. Children were thought as individuals with special needs – praising and affection not beating were recommended. But girls stayed victims of fashion to have slim bodies, tight wastes and pale appearances. To achieve this popular unhealthy appearance parents

gave them little food, forced them into tight clothes. That's why they were fragile and lost consciousness quickly, which was considered a good taste. Parents still decided the questions of marriage, but children's opinion started to be asked. The life became longer because of a healthier diet and cleaner cotton clothes.

The growing individualism showed itself in the desire of privacy. For example, before the 18th century families ate in the presence of servants talking about their problems, besides they had room which let one to another. In the 18th century, families started eating alone and corridors appeared for every person to have his own room. Individualism increased because the sons were typically sent to the boarding schools and had less affection to their families – they put all their strength to get power or money.

As for the poor class, if a woman could find a job, the family did well, but if only a father worked the family was in the edge of starvation. The use of child labour increased in workhouses. They started working by the age of 7, they were cheap and easy to discipline. But at the end of the century, the child's labour became shameful, because more children worked and the fact that children worked became obvious. In 1788 Parliament passed a Regulating Act to reduce cruelty. In the 19th century the condition of poor children was to become the main of social reform.

Industrial revolution

Several influences came at the same time to revolutionize Britain's industry: money, labour, demand for goods, new power and better transport. Increased food production made it possible to feed people in the towns. These people were landless farmers looking for a job. They had to buy things they had never bought before: food, clothes (before they produced them by themselves). These people became the workers who not only bought the things but produce them. By the early 18th century simply machines had already been invented for basic jobs - mass production became possible. Each machine carried out one simple process, which introduced the idea of "division of labour" among workers. This was an important part of industrial revolution.

The next step for industrial revolution was fuel – not wood, but coal. Coal was used to transform iron ore into good steel and iron – Britain became the leading iron

producer. Increased iron production made it possible to manufacture new machinery for other industries. The person to build the largest ironworks was John Wilkinson: bridge, boats, even a chapel, a greatly improved steam engine with a turning motion, made of iron and steel – people were not dependant on natural power any more.

Other basic materials of the industrial revolution were cotton and woolen cloth. The production of cotton goods was limited by spinning process which was made by hand. In 1764 a spinning machine was invented. Then in 1785 a weaving machine was introduced. These steps allowed Britain to make cheap cloth. But this machinery forced a lot of people out of work, and “cottage industry” turned into “factory industry”.

In the Midlands, factories using local clay developed very quickly and produced china goods. China was exported and used in every-day life. New waterways were dug between towns, main roads were improved.

The social effect of the industrial revolution was enormous. Workers tried to join together to protect their rights. But the government banned these “combinations”. Riots occurred, led by the unemployed who had been replaced by machines. They started to break the machinery, but the government supported the factory-owners, let the riots down and made breaking machinery punishable by death.

Britain avoided real revolution partly because of a new religious movement. It didn't come from the church of England as the priests belonged to the gentry and shared the opinions of the government. The new movement which met the needs of the industrial working class was led by John Westley. He was an Anglican priest who traveled around the country teaching and preaching. His “Methodism” was above all a personal and emotional form of religion. It was organized in small groups, or “chapels”. By the end of the century there were over 360 Methodist chapels in industrial areas. These chapels were more democratic, but in the same time Westley was conservative and thought the French Revolution the work of devil. He tried to give ordinary people the sense of purpose and dignity, but taught them to be honest and hardworking. As a result people accepted many injustices without complaint. Westley brought many people back to Christianity.

Methodists were not alone. Other Christians also joined what became known as “the evangelical revival”, which was a return to a simple faith based on the Bible. It was also a small group of Christians who worked against the slavery. The first success came when a judge freed a slave who had been landed in Bristol as “no one in Britain should be a slave”. The slavery was abolished by law in 1807, but in colonies it was ended in 1833. Other Christians tried to limit the cruelty of the employers. In 1802 parliament passed the law that limited the working day of children to 12 hours. In 1819 it was forbidden to employ the children under 9.

France’s neighbors started to realize that the revolution is dangerous even for them. In France the bourgeoisie led the working class to make the revolution. In England bourgeoisie was in the House of Commons and had no sympathy with the revolution, and were afraid of “awakening” of the working class. Several radicals sympathized with the cause of the French revolutionaries and called for reforms. Tory crowds attacked radicals. The Whigs were split – William Pitt “the Younger” (the son of Lord Chatham) was the leader of the conservative half? Who were afraid of “Jacobinism” (the radicals), the radicals joined Charles James Fox. Two famous books were written on the topic: “Reflection on the revolution in France” (by Edmund Burke) against the radicals and “The rights of man” (by Tom Paine) in support of the ordinary people’s rights.

The matters were discussed a lot, the Corresponding Society was established (the first working-class political organization). Sometime later the government closed it quickly. Radical leaders were imprisoned. Besides, to prevent the army from dangerous influence, the soldiers were put into special army camps from private houses and inns.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) What was the financial policy of Britain in the 18th century?
- 2) What was the main peculiarity of the Cabinet?
- 3) What was the reason of the start of the War of Independence?
- 4) Describe the style of life of the poor and the rich.
- 5) Which steps led to the industrial revolution?

Тема 7. The nineteenth century

Лекция 7

Аннотация. В данной теме рассматриваются особенности развития Великобритании в 19 веке, особенности внешней и внутренней политики государства, экономическая ситуация и особенности жизнедеятельности разных классов английского общества, образование «Содружества наций».

Вопросы для изучения:

- 1) Reforms and workers revolts
- 2) The raise of the middle class and cities
- 3) Politics
- 4) The end of an age

Ключевые слова: reforms, People's Charter, the Great Exhibition, Liberalism, Commonwealth of nations.

Глоссарий

British Empire – the empire, originated with the overseas possessions and trading posts established by England between the late 16th and early 18th centuries, which comprised the dominions, colonies, protectorates, mandates and other territories ruled or administered by the United Kingdom.

Commonwealth of Nations - an intergovernmental organization of 53 member states that were mostly territories of the former British Empire.

Cooperative Movement – the movement started by a few Chartists and trade unionists, with a purpose of self-help, through a network of shops which sold goods at a fair and low price, and which shared all its profits among its members.

Great Exhibition – the exhibition, opened in 1851, which demonstrated the industrial power of the UK.

Liberalism – the movement, which demanded free trade, social and political reforms.

People's Charter – the document worked out by trade unions which contained the following rights: the vote for all adult, the right for a man without property to be a MP, an election every year.

Public school – schools for kids of rich people, where they were trained in leadership, not only in subjects.

Reform Bill – the bill, which contained revolutionary statements, for example, Scotland's voters, increased from 5000 to 65000.

Two-party system – the system in Parliament, which is based on two leading parties.

Методические рекомендации по изучению темы:

Вначале необходимо изучить теоретическую часть с определениями основных понятий. Для того, чтобы вам было легче разобраться в содержании лекций используйте глоссарий. После ознакомления с лекционным материалом предусматривается выполнение практических заданий. Для закрепления материала используйте вопросы для самопроверки

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Reforms, workers revolts

After Napoleonic war (during which people thought about war not revolution) When peace came in 1815 there was no longer such a need for factory-made products and many lost their jobs. The army officers also became unemployed. Farmers suffered because of cheaper imported corn. Farmers persuaded the government to

introduce laws to protect locally grown crop. The prices rose, but the wages stayed the same.

In 1830 farm workers in the south of England rioted for increased wages. People tried to catch birds and animals in the forests, but as for the forests belonged to lords, the punishment was severe (could be hanged or sent to Australia). Government didn't provide the necessary money and only those who lived in workhouse could get help. But the workhouses were hated because they were crowded and dirty with less food. The people had to work till late at night, sexes were separated. In order to avoid the workhouse many people looked for better life in the towns. In the first thirty years of the nineteenth century cities like Birmingham and Sheffield doubled in size. The main city areas were northwest England, where the new cotton industry was based, the north Midlands, the area around Glasgow and south Wales. London remained the largest. In general the workers were badly organized and had no leaders. Several riots did, however, take place. For example, in 1819 a riot took place in Manchester, soldiers attacked and many people were killed. The struggle between the government and those who wanted change became greater.

The Whigs understood better than the Tories the need to reform the law in order to improve social conditions. They believed that the revolution could be avoided by the law. The Tories believed that Parliament should represent "property owners". The radicals believed that Parliament should represent the people. The Whigs (Liberals) wanted enough change to avoid revolution but not more. In 1830 Lord Grey formed a Whig government, in 1832 the Lords (after the Commons) accepted the Reform Bill, because they were frightened by the riots. The Reform Bill seemed a political revolution. Scotland's voters increased from 5000 to 65000. Forty one English towns were represented in Parliament for the first time. But there were some shortcomings. For example, England with only 54% of population, had 70 % of MPs and so on.

Since 1824 workers had been allowed to join together in unions, but they were weak, aimed at preventing other people work in the sphere and controlling wages. Soldiers were used to force people back to work (after the strike) and break up meetings. In 1834, there was an event of great importance in trade union history. Six

farm workers in the Dorset village of Tolpuddle joined together. They were punished by the law which caused the riot. The riot was suppressed and the case became the symbol of employer's cruelty and prompted people to organize into unions. The workers were helped by the fact that a cheap postage system appeared which made them easy to communicate. Working together unions put forward a People's Charter in 1838. The Charter demanded rights that are now accepted by everyone: the vote for all adult, the right for a man without property to be a MP, an election every year. All of these demands were refused by the House of Commons.

The "Chartists" were not united for long. They were united by those ready to use violence and those who believed in change by lawful means only. Most didn't agree to the idea of women's right to vote. But riots and political meetings continued. The people were arrested, sent to colonies, even killed. The government was saved by the Prime Minister Robert Peel, who believed in slow but steady changes. He used the improved economic conditions (1840) to weaken the Chartist movement. He abolished the unpopular Corn Law, which had kept the price of corn higher than necessary. This made life harder for the poor but also for industrialists.

Besides hunger, crime was the mark of poverty. Peel established a regular police force for London in 1829. At first people laughed at them, but then the police forces became successful and crime was pushed out of the cities, and even countryside.

Britain's success in avoiding the storm of revolution in Europe in 1848 was admired everywhere. Britain became a model both of industrial success and of free constitutional government.

The rise of the middle class and cities

In 1851 Queen Victoria opened the Great Exhibition of the Industries of all Nations in London. No other nation could produce as much at that time. The country became powerful because it had enough coal, iron and steel which could be exported and used to produce heavy industrial goods (iron ships and steam engines). Woolen and cotton cloth was cheap and very good, it was also exported a lot. Nearly half the world's total shipping belonged to Britain. The industrial empire was supported by a strong banking system.

The greatest example of Britain's industrial power was its railway system. It helped people to travel all around the country, to visit London. In fact the railway was built to transport goods, it connected the industrial towns of the north, London, Birmingham. By 1870 the railway system of Britain was almost complete. The middle class took advantage of living in suburbs, from which they traveled to the city every day by train. The suburbs – a variant of the country village with all advantages of the city. Poor people also moved to the suburbs to live in small houses or work as servants.

In the nineteenth century the middle class grew more quickly and included greater differences of wealth social position: it included those who worked in the professions such as the Church, the law, medicine, the civil and diplomatic service, merchant banking, the army and the navy. Industrialists were often “self-made” men who came from the poor. They believed in hard work, regular style of life and being careful with money.

The age was a time of great social movement. The children of factory owners preferred banking to industry, went into professions, the very successful became lords. The children of rich merchants were sent to “public schools” where they were trained in leadership, not only in subjects (children were taken from home and put into hard conditions).

The cities in general were overcrowded and unhealthy. Proper drains and water supplies were still limited to those who could afford them (in 1832 an outbreak of cholera, spread of dirty weather, killed 31000). But in the middle of the century began to appoint health officers and to provide proper drains and clean water. These health officers had to make sure that new houses were less crowded. But there still were many “slums” for factory workers. In newly built areas parks, libraries and public baths were built. Towns grew fast. An average worker didn't own the house but rented it. He had four small rooms and a small back yard.

Politics

In 1851 official population survey showed that only 60% of population went to church. Only half of them were Anglicans, one third – Nonconformists and the rest of believers – Catholics. Changes in the law in 1828 made it possible for Catholics and

Non conformists to enter government service and Parliament. The Tory-Anglican did their best to prevent them, but Nonconformists supported more reformist Liberals.

In 1846 Sir Robert Peel (a Tory) fell from power. He became unpopular as many Tories think that his repeal of the Corn Laws and support of the right of Catholics to enter Parliament (1828) was a betrayal of Tory beliefs. But Peel was a true representative of the style of politics – he was independent of his party membership, took steps which he didn't like but had to take. He didn't like Catholics but had to accept them, he didn't wish to repeal the Corn Laws (the served landowners) but accepted the power of the middle class.

Both Tories and Whigs understood the need for free trade, social and political reforms to allow the middle class to grow richer. It also meant encouraging a freer society in the countries with which Britain traded. The movement was called "Liberalism" and the Whigs who supported the ideas Became "Liberals". Some Tories also pursued essentially "Liberal" ideas. In 1823 the Tory Foreign Minister, Lord Canning, used the nave to prevent Spain send the troops against rebellious Spanish colonies (actually Spain prevented British trade with these colonies). Besides, he supported Greek freedom from the Turkish empire (actually to prevent Russia from taking power in Greece instead of Turkey). From 1846 until 1865 the most important political figure was Lord Palmerston, a Liberal who often went against his own party's ideas. He was known for liberalism in his Foreign Policy – he supported European liberal and independent movements. Within Britain Palmerston didn't allow further political reform.

After Palmerstone death in 1865 a much striker "two party" system developed, demanding greater loyalty from its membership. Tory (Conservative) and Liberal developed greater organization and order. Because of the Reform of 1832 a larger number of people could vote and they chose a different kind of MP from commercial rather than the landowning class. Gladstone, the new Liberal leader, had been a factory owner and had started his political life as a Tory. The new Conservative leader Disraeli was a Jew (the got rights in 1860). He supported the landed gentry and brought down the Peel's government. But 20 years later he changed the outlook of

the party to make it popular among the middle class. Since 1881 the Conservative Party has generally remained the strongest.

Much of what we know today of the modern state was built in 1860s and 70s. The number of voters increased from 20% to 60 % in towns and to 70% in the country. The rapid growth in party organization, with branches in every town, took place immediately. In 1872 voting was carried out secretly for the first time. This and the growth of newspaper industry strengthened the importance of popular opinion. Democracy grew quickly. England (the south) was conservative, while Scotland, Ireland, Wales and the north of England was more radical. House of Commons grew in size to over 650 members, the House of Lords lost the power.

Democracy grew outside Parliament. In 1844 a “Co-operative Movement” was started by a few Chartists and trade unionists. Its purpose was self-help, through a network of shops which sold goods at a fair and low price, and which shared all its profits among its members. It was very successful. After 1850 a number of trade unions grew up, based on kinds of skilled labour, they tried to achieve their goals through parliamentary democracy. The new Trade Union Congress established a parliamentary committee with the purpose of achieving worker representation in Parliament. Trade Unions cooperated with Liberals. But during the 1870s wages were lowered in many factories and this led to strikes. The Labour party was formed with the help of trade unions.

During the 1850s a regular civil service was established to carry out the work of government, and “civil servants” were chosen after taking an examination. The army was reorganized, the officers couldn’t buy any more their commissions. In 1867 the first move was made to introduce free and compulsory education for children.

Queen Victoria came to the throne as a young woman in 1837 and reigned until 1901. She married a German prince, but he died in 1861. She was in a sorrow and for a long time wasn’t seen in public. That was dangerous – people started to criticize her and waited for the monarchy to die naturally. But queen’s advisers persuaded her to take a more public interest in the life of the kingdom. So did she and she soon became very popular. One important step to popularity was the publication of the queen’s book “Our life in Highlands”. The book was actually her diary where

she described her private life. That delighted the middle class - they enjoyed being able to share the life of the queen. The British respected the example of family life which the queen had given them, shared its moral and religious view.

Britain's empire had first been built on trade and the need to defend this against rival European countries. The empire lost the American colonies in 1783, so Britain watched the ocean trade routes carefully and fought the wars to protect them. In 1839 it attacked China and made it allow Britain trade opium from India to China. Fear that Russia would advance southwards towards India resulted in disastrous war in Afghanistan, where the British were beaten. Britain also feared that Russian could destroy the weak Ottoman Empire (which controlled Turkey and Arab countries). So Britain joined the Turks against Russia in Crimea in 1854. It was the last time the newspapers were honest about the war^ they wrote about poor quality of the officers and terrible conditions.

In India the unwise treatment of Indian soldiers led to revolt on 1857 which became a national movement against foreign rule. The British cruelly punished the defeated rebels. In Africa, Britain's first interest had been the slave trade on the west coast, it took over the Cape of Good Hope at the southern point, because it needed a port on the sea route to India.

Christianity became a tool for building a commercial and political empire in Africa. The governments of Europe rushed in to take what they wanted using the excuse of bringing "civilization" to people. In 1890 European made a treaty to divide Africa into "spheres of interest". Britain had the largest area. In South Africa Britain found problems with the Dutch settlers, who fought two wars and defeated the weak British army. The real problems of British imperial ambition were obvious in Egypt. Britain bought a large number of shares in the Suez Canal Company. When Egyptian nationalists brought down the ruler the British invaded to protect its route to India. Then Sudan was invaded in 1898. But every country conquered had to be controlled which was problematic. There was a contradiction between imperial ambitions the liberal ideas. In the twentieth century this contradiction was the reason for the collapse of the empire.

Another reason for the interest in colonies was increasing population of Britain. There was marked increase in settlements in Canada, Australia, New Zealand. The newcomers nearly destroyed the earlier population of the countries, they took their land to farm it. In new Zealand the Maori inhabitants suffered less, although they lost their land. The white colonies were soon allowed to govern themselves and no longer depended on Britain. But they still accepted the British monarch as their head of state. It prepared the way from empire to a British “Commonwealth of nations”. By the end of the 19th century Britain controlled the oceans and much of the land areas of the world. But actually Britain began to spend more on its empire than it took from it.

The end of an age: social and economic improvements

Between 1875 and 1914 the conditions of the poor improved as prices fell and real wages doubled. Most homes had lighting and heating, poor families could eat better food (meat, milk, vegetables). Two Education Acts were passed (1870-91): all children had to go to school up to the age of 13 (they were taught reading, writing and arithmetic). In Scotland there were 4 Universities in Wales – 1 university and a college. England started to build “redbrick” Universities – new universities, science and technology to feed industries were taught there. (The old universities were stone-built).

Power moved from shires to towns. Squires had no power at all. JPs from 1888 could now only make judgments in very small cases. New country councils took their place, which were made up of elected people.

The authority of the church weakened: churches were half empty, because people went to towns where they stopped going to church (19% of Londoners were regular churchgoers). The poor didn’t like the church because it didn’t help them with daily problems. It was a form of rebellion against the government with which the Church was still closely connected.

New ways of spending time appeared. But for parks, museums, pools and libraries they were attracted by the alehouses (pubs). Workmen started to use the railway for traveling to the suburbs and seaside to spend the holidays with their families. The invention of the bicycle was also important – people could cycle into the countryside, young women got some elements of freedom.

By the end of the 19th century two sports, cricket and football, had become of great interest. Cricket started as “gentlemen’s game” became popular in the village. From 1873 a country championship took place each year. The game encouraged individual and team excellence and fair play. It was imported to the empire, Wales, but it wasn’t popular in Scotland. Football was organized in the 19th century. It was a group play, attracted a lot of people. By the end of the century nearly every town had its own football or “soccer” team. Smt they symbolized smth more. For example, Celtic were supported by Irish immigrants, but Rangers by Protestants. That time there was no violence as the crowds were well-behaved.

The most important idea of the 19th century was that everyone had the right to personal freedom, which was the basis of capitalism. This idea spread widely through the book “Enquiry into the Wealth of Nation” written by Adam Smith. After him several capitalist economies argued that government should not interfere in trade and industry. Fewer laws, they claimed, meant more freedom, which would lead to happiness. But when the factory owners started to do as they wanted that led to misery of the poor. So they demanded the government to interfere. The result was a number of laws to improve working conditions. One of these (1833) limited the number of hours that women and children had to work. Another law abolished slavery in the empire.

Government policy was influenced by individual people. Robert Owen, a factory owner in Scotland, gave his workers short working day, built the factory in the countryside, provided good housing and education for workers. As a result they produced more goods. The example was followed by some other workers. But in general the conditions of the poor were bad. In the middle of the century Ch. Dickens attacked the rich for their cruelty against poor people. Painting was also affected by the new thoughts. Now not aristocracy but the middle class paid for the pictures, so to please them, artists painted sentimental subjects, industrial scenes. Many of the first socialists were artists and writers. Some of them organized “Arts and Crafts Movements”, whose members turned away from the middle-class values and looked to pre-industrial handcraft and nature for inspiration.

British self-confidence was based also upon the rapid scientific advances. In 1857 Charles Darwin published "The origin of Species". His theory was welcomed by people who believed that there is a scientific proof for everything. That led to crisis in the Church. The battle between "faith" and "reason" lasted for the rest of the century. One more dangerous result of the book was talks about "advanced" and "inferior" races. British thought themselves "advanced" and used it as a ground for their imperial policy.

At the end of the age a demand for reform led "New Liberal" governments to try to improve social conditions: in 1907 they provided free school meals, in a year started an old age pensions scheme (astonishing idea), 1909 Labour Exchanges were opened for the unemployed to look for a job. Two years later all working people were made to pay for "national insurance".

The Liberal reforms were unpopular with Conservatives, who had a majority in the House of Lords. They stopped the laws in 1906-10 introduced by the Commons. In 1909 the Liberals introduced a new budget where they raised the taxes paid by the rich. The Lords turned the budget down, but the king supported the Commons and the budget was accepted. In 1911 the Parliamentary Act was produced, where the House of Lords lost many rights: they couldn't turn down the laws but only delay them not more than for 2 years, they had no right to question financial legislation and so on. MPs started to be paid – that was important, because now (theoretically) even men of law income could be MPs. The main result of the changes was that Britain had evolutionary changes not revolutions.

But by the end of the century Britain lost many advantages over other countries. Germany became very strong. In general other countries had greater natural wealth (coal and iron). Most people in Britain invested their money abroad not in their own country. British workers produced less, Britain was behind in science and technology. Public schools didn't encourage business and scientific studies.

The balance in Europe was beginning to collapse. Of course Britain was the leader in shipping, in telegraphic communication, London was the center of international financial system. But suddenly the British realized that other countries have more powerful armies, trading system and industries (Germany and the USA).

Britain had to reach agreements with other countries. The treaties were made with France, Japan, Russia. They failed with the Ottoman Empire and Germany.

The danger of war with Germany brought France and Britain together. Britain was frightened by the German navy, so they did their best to build ships. Britain could not possibly survive without food and goods that were taken by sea. In 1914 Germany and Austria-Hungary had a military alliance. Russia and France made one also. Britain had to support France.

In July 1914 Austria-Hungary declared on Serbia following the murder of Austrian Archduke in Sarajevo. Russia had promised to defend Serbia and declared war on Austria-Hungary, which was supported by Germany. France, as Russian ally, made its troops ready. In August 1914 Britain had to go through Belgium to attack France. Britain immediately declared the war, because it had promise to guarantee Belgium's neutrality.

Вопросы для самоконтроля

- 1) What was the reason for revolts at the beginning of the 19th century?
- 2) Analyze the work of unions in the UK.
- 3) What was the situation in the cities?
- 4) Why did the empire collapse?
- 5) Which ideas spread in the UK in the 19th century?

Информационные источники

Основная литература

- 1) McDowall D. An Illustrated History of Britain. – Edinburgh: Wesley Longman Limited, 2007. -188 p.
- 2) Морозова С.Л. History of England/ С.Л. Морозова. – М: АСТ, 2007 – 160 с.
- 3) Заболотный В.М. История, география и культура стран изучаемого языка (English-speaking world): учебно-методический комплекс.- Мю: ЕАОИ, 2011ю – 550с. <http://www.bibliorossica.com/book.html?currBookId=6363>

Дополнительная литература

- 1) Усова Г.С. История Англии. Тексты для чтения на английском языке. – М: Лань, 2007. – 256 с.
- 2) Новейшая история Великобритании: XX - начало XXI века: Учебное пособие / Г.С. Остапенко, А.Ю. Прокопов. - М.: Вузовский учебник: НИЦ Инфра-М, 2012. - 472 с <http://znanium.com/bookread.php?book=363805>
- 3) История государства и права зарубежных стран: Учебник / Е.В.Сафронова, О.А.Бельчук, С.Г.Евтушенко; Под ред. Е.В.Сафроновой - М.: ИЦ РИОР: НИЦ ИНФРА-М, 2014 - 502с.: <http://znanium.com/bookread.php?book=425834>
- 4) Ковяко, И. И. Мемуары как источник по истории политики Великобритании по германскому вопросу в 1980-е гг. [Электронный ресурс] // От Киевской Руси до России XXI века: вехи российской истории, государственности, общества и культуры. Материалы междунар. науч. конфер. 24-25 мая 2012. - Витебск: МИТСО, 2012. - С. 323-326. // <http://znanium.com/bookread.php?book=441591>
- 5) История международных отношений: В трех томах: Учебник/Под ред. А.В. Торкунова ,М.М.Наринского. – М.: Аспект Пресс, 2012.- 496 с. <http://www.bibliorossica.com/book.html?currBookId=6022>
- 6) Симонишвили, Л. Р. История государства и права зарубежных стран [Электронный ресурс] : учеб. пособие / Л. Р. Симонишвили. - М.: МФПА, 2011. - 280 с. <http://znanium.com/bookread.php?book=451201>

Интернет-ресурсы

- 1) <http://www.2uk.ru/> – Все о Великобритании
- 2) <http://www.uk.ru/> – История Великобритании
- 3) <http://dic.academic.ru/> - Энциклопедия Кольера. Великобритания. История.
- 4) <http://brude.narod.ru/> - История Британии
- 5) <http://adelanta.info/> - Новостной бриз в берегов Атлантики
- 6) <http://about-britain.ru/> - Великобритания
- 7) <http://www.british-history.ru/> - British history and culture

Глоссарий

Act of Supremacy – the act of Parliament, which declared the king of England the head of the Church.

Armada – a big fleet (Spanish)

Beaker people – a group of people who arrived after 2400 in southeast Britain from Europe. Their arrival is marked by the first individual graves, furnished with pottery beakers.

Black Death – a terrible plague in 1348.

British Empire – the empire, originated with the overseas possessions and trading posts established by England between the late 16th and early 18th centuries, which comprised the dominions, colonies, protectorates, mandates and other territories ruled or administered by the United Kingdom.

Cabinet – the government ministers who work together.

Celts - a group of people, who arrived around 700 BC, probably came from central Europe or southern Russia They were tall, had blue eyes, fair or red hair.

Civitas - the old Celtic tribal capitals.

Code of chivalry - the way in which a perfect knight should behave

Coloniae - towns peopled by Roman settlers

Commons – the House of Commons, a “representative institution”, which contains a mixture of knights and merchant

Commonwealth of Nations - an intergovernmental organization of 53 member states that were mostly territories of the former British Empire.

Cooperative Movement – the movement started by a few Chartists and trade unionists, with a purpose of self-help, through a network of shops which sold goods at a fair and low price, and which shared all its profits among its members.

Court of Star Chamber – the king’s council to deal with lawless nobles.

Divine right – the belief that the king is chosen by God and can be judged only by God.

“Domesday” book – the book written in 1086, where it was who owned the land and how much it was worth.

Druids – warriors and priests, who ruled the Celtic tribes.

Enclosure – the process of enclosing the lands of peasants to be used for mixed animals and cereals.

Feudal system – the system of holding of land: all land was owned by the king but it was held by others, called “vassals” in return for services and goods.

Great Exhibition – the exhibition, opened in 1851, which demonstrated the industrial power of the UK.

Guild – brotherhoods of merchants or skilled worker in towns.

House of Commons - a “representative institution”, which contains a mixture of knights and merchant.

Hundred Year War – the war between England and France (1337-1453), after which England lost all its possessions in France.

Industrial revolution – a change of economy, which was based on inventing machines for basic jobs and producing iron goods.

Jacobism - the political movement in Great Britain and Ireland to restore the Roman Catholic Stuart King James II of England and his heirs to the thrones of England, Scotland and Ireland.

Jury - 12 neighbors who could help the suspect to prove his innocence, then who could decide whether the accused is guilty or not.

Levellers – people who wanted a new equality among men: all men over 21 must have the right to vote.

Liberalism – the movement, which demanded free trade, social and political reforms.

Lollardy – the heresy based on the writings, which allowed people to pray and think independently of Church control.

Lord-Protector – Oliver Cromwell, the ruler of England from 1653 to 1658.

Methodism – a religious movement, which met the needs of the industrial working class.

Magna Carta” (the Great Charter) – an agreement, written in 1215, according to which the king promised all “freemen” protection and the right to a fair trial

Monopoly – the right of a person or country to control the trade.

Municipia - large cities, in which all people were given Roman citizenship.

Ordeal – the procedure of defining the guilt of the suspect when the iron is put on the tongue.

Order of the Garter - 24 knights to gather once a year (the number of Arthur's knights).

Parish – the area served by one church, the administrative unit.

Parliament – the supreme legislative body of England.

People's Charter – the document worked out by trade unions which contained the following rights: the vote for all adult, the right for a man without property to be a MP, an election every year

Petition (Bill) of Rights – the law that stated the power of parliament over monarch.

Poor Law – the law passed in 1601 that made local people responsible for the poor in the district.

Public school – schools for kids of rich people, where they were trained in leadership, not only in subjects.

Puritans – a religious branch of Christianity.

Radicals – British politicians who supported the colonies.

Reform Bill – the bill, which contained revolutionary statements, for example, Scotland's voters, increased from 5000 to 65000.

Regulating act – the act of parliament, passed in 1788, which reduced cruelty to working children.

Royalists – a group of people who supported the king and his authority.

Saxons - the invaders who came from three powerful Germanic tribes: the Saxons, Angles, Jutes.

Serf - a person who worked on the land of the nobles and was not able to leave the estate.

Soldier poets – brave in war and well-educated poets who showed the adventurous spirit of the age.

Speenhamland Act – the act of local magistrates which gave the money to the poor.

Tories – the party in Parliament, which consisted of inheritors of the “Royalist” position.

Trade union – the union organized by the poor to protect their rights.

Two-party system – the system in Parliament, which is based on two leading parties.

Vassal – a person who held the land in return for services and goods.

Vicar – the priest in the parish.

Vikings - the invaders who raided Britain in 8th century from Norway and Denmark.

War of Roses – a civil war in England.

Whigs – the party in Parliament, which consisted of people who believed in religious freedom and supported the idea that the king should always have the consent of Parliament.

Witan - the King’s Council, which grew out of an informal group of warrior and churchmen (advisers of the king).

Workhouse – the place where most of the poor were kept and fed.

Yeomen – farmers who rented the land that belonged to a local feudal.

Вопросы к зачету

1. Earliest times: Britain's prehistory. The Celts. The Romans. Roman life.
2. Earliest times: The Saxon invasion. Government and society. Christianity. The Vikings.
3. The early Middle Ages: The Norman Conquest. Feudalism. Magna Carta.
4. The early Middle Ages: Government and society. The growth of government. Law and justice. Religion. Ordinary people. The growth of towns. Language, literature and culture.
5. The late Middle Ages: War with Scotland and Wales. The age of chivalry. The century of plagues. The poor in revolt. Heresy.
6. The late Middle Ages: The crisis of kingship. Wales in revolt. The struggle in France. The War of Roses. Scotland.
7. The late Middle Ages: Government and society. The condition of women. Language and culture.
8. The Tudors: The new monarchy. The Reformation. The Protestant-Catholic struggle.
9. The Tudors: The new foreign policy. The new trading empire. Wales, Ireland, Scotland. Mary Queen of Scots.
10. The Tudors: Government and society. Tudor parliament. Rich and poor in town and country..
11. The Stuarts: Parliament against the Crown. Religious disagreement. Civil war.
12. The Stuarts: Republican Britain. Catholicism, the crown and the new constitutional monarchy. Scotland and Ireland. Foreign relations.
13. The eighteenth century: The political world. Politics and finance. Wilkes. Radicalism and the loss of the American colonies. Ireland and Scotland.
14. The eighteenth century: Life in town and country. Town life. The rich. The countryside. Family life.
15. The eighteenth century: Industrial revolution. Society and religion. Revolution in France and the Napoleonic wars.

16. The nineteenth century: The danger at home, 1815-32. Reform. Workers revolt. Family life.

17. The nineteenth century: The years of self-confidence. The railway. The rise of the middle class. The growth of towns and cities. Population and politics. Queen monarchy and empire. Wales, Scotland and Ireland.

18. The nineteenth century: the end of an age. Social and economic improvement. Changes in thinking. The storm clouds of war.

19. The twentieth century. Britain at war: The First World War. The rise of the Labour party. The rights of women. Ireland. The Second World War.